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A KEY TO THE GENERA OF LARVAL CARABIDAE (COL.)

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WITH ONE HUNDRED TEXT-FIGURES.

EARLY in 1939 Prof. W. P. Hayes of Urbana, Ill., suggested that my key to the genera of larval Carabidae (1919, Suppl. ent. 8:3) should be translated into English and re-published in an American journal. Whilst it was felt that it would be useful to arrange for an English edition, it was also realised that in the twenty years which had passed since its publication so many alterations, improvements and additions to the key had become necessary that a plain translation and re-publication of the 1919 paper would no longer suffice. I therefore decided to recast the key and to include genera available in the United States National Museum besides the material of the British and Copenhagen Museums and my own collection. Prof. Hayes at once wrote to Dr. C. F. W. Muesebeck, while in the meantime I had written to Drs. A. G. Böving and W. T. Anderson, asking for material from the United States National Museum. Thanks to these gentlemen and to Dr. E. A. Chapin, I soon obtained on loan a representative collection of 40 genera and subgenera, including 47 species of Carabid larvae, mostly North American. Dr. Kai L. Henriksen supplied me with some rare, mostly European, larvae not represented in the other material at hand. The collection of the British Museum (Natural History) was used freely through the courtesy of Dr. K. G. Blair. To these gentlemen as well as to the donors of the material now in the British Museum and in my own collection, as referred to in the list of material at the end of the paper, my sincere thanks are offered. Among the foremost of those to whom my thanks are due, I wish to mention Hr. E. Rosenberg, Mr. J. C. M. Gardner and Signor L. Boldori, who during their prolonged studies on larval Carabidae did everything possible to keep me informed of the results of their studies on the classification of these larvae and sent TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 1. (JULY 1942.)

specimens of the more important genera as a present, in exchange, or on loan. The effect of this generous collaboration will be evident at many points in the present paper. I am indebted to my wife for a great deal of help in finishing

the manuscript.

The key published in 1919 included 64 genera and subgenera, of which I had then not seen 34. The genus Demetrias was added in an abbreviated and improved key to the Central European genera as far as then known (1920, Ent. Jahrb. 1921: 128). Numerous contributions have since been made by various authors, the most important being those by Gardner on Indian Carabid larvae (1927-38, Indian Forest Rec., Ent. 13 (2): 63-67; 16 (4): 91-95; 17 (8): 12 p.; (n.s.) 3 (8): 149-156 and the most comprehensive one, 1936 loc. cit. (n.s.) 2: 181-195), by Jeannel on Trechini, and Boldori mainly on Trechini (cited under the tribes concerned) and Böving and Craighead on the general classification of Carabid larvae (1931, Ent. amer. (n.s.) 11:18). For practical use a key in Russian was worked out from the existing literature by Znojko (1929, Plant Prot. 6:335). The genus Pogonus was there added to those previously known. Other contributions are referred to in the list of material under the group concerned, but they are only cited so far as it has been deemed appropriate actually to use them in the preparation of these keys, and so far as they are not contained in the world catalogue (Csiki, 1927-33, CARABIDAE in Junk-Schenkling, Coleopterorum Catalogus). In the present paper I report on 165 genera and subgenera, of which 28 have had to be incorporated from published sources. The genera which I have not seen are marked with an asterisk (*).

The keys are concerned with the characters of tribes, genera and, to some extent, subgenera. Descriptions of the species available have not been added, as really useful descriptions would have at least doubled the space required, but, in a few cases, striking characters are mentioned in the list of material. In larval taxonomy questions of priority are not normally involved. Therefore, detailed specific descriptions of larvae are, in my opinion, seldom called for, and time and printing space can more usefully be devoted to comparative treatment. Moreover, research on a world-wide basis on the larvae of a certain group will at present result in much safer and more final conclusions for the classification of tribes and genera than for that of species, of which necessarily the available proportion will be much smaller. Thus the species studied for the present paper may amount to about 2% of the described species of adults, whereas the genera and subgenera distinguished are 10% of those based on the adults (if

the subgenera of Carabus are disregarded), and the tribes almost 50%.1

The relatively small proportion of species of which the larvae are available at present makes it imperative, in my opinion, to base a larval classification on as many characters as possible, as it is impossible to foresee which of the characters will retain their present diagnostic importance, after more complete material has been accumulated.

Since specific descriptions are omitted from this paper, a list of the species and specimens studied, or references to the literature, is given at the end. Similar lists have been published in several of my more recent reports on beetle

¹ Of the following tribes the larval characters are unknown:—Carabinae: Pamborini, Hiletini, Opisthiini, Trachypachyini, Metriini, Cicindini, Nototylini, Promecognathini, Enceladini, Siagonini, Migadopini. Harpalinae piliferae: Apotomini, Nomiini, Zolini, Melaenini (see p. 63). Harpalinae impilae: Pogonopsini, Perigonini, Cymbionotini, Cuneipectini, Agonicini, Idiomorphini, Zacotini, Peleciini, Disphaericini, Amorphomerini, Cuneipectini, Eurocatipennes: Nematotarsini, Corsyrini, Graphipterini, Pentagonicini, Hexagoniini, Agrini, Helluodini, Euchilini. Pseudomorphinae. Most of these tribes consist of only one or two genera.

larvae, and it may be desirable shortly to comment on these lists, which contain the data that cannot well be included in the keys. It is obviously necessary to indicate which particular species, what number of species and specimens and which stages have served for the definition of a genus. It is also desirable to state in which collection the specimens studied may be found, and it is often indispensable to comment on the method of identification or on the literature. The head-widths, on the use of which some remarks are made at p. 6, are also given in the list. Besides these data of more technical importance, this part also contains the geographical and ecological localities and the date of capture for each larva. It thus presents a relatively large collection of ecological and phenological data, much of which is new, particularly that concerning the occurrence of the larval instars in the various months of the year.

Diagnostic Characters of the Carabid Larvae: Legs consisting of five joints (coxa, trochanter, femur, tibia, tarsus) and one or two claws, i.e. with two joints and the claw(s) after the knee (figs. 40, 41, 42). Labrum and clypeus wholly fused with frontal piece. Mandibles without a suctorial channel, without a prostheca and with a single cutting edge (not two dentate ones, delimiting a groove as in Noterus). Maxillae (figs. 46-50) with the cardo very short, formed by two half-rings, which lie in the same axis as the stipes, outer lobe inserted on stipes. No gills or swimming fringes. Eighth pair of abdominal spiracles subequal in size to the others and in the same sublateral position (figs. 70-72, 75-85); ninth and tenth abdominal segments distinct.

These characters are strictly diagnostic of the larvae of Carabidae. The Cicindelinae, which are often regarded as a separate family and which are not included in this paper, can be distinguished from the rest of the Carabidae by the strong, movable scansorial hooks on the dorsum of the fifth abdominal segment and by the connate palpiger and basal joint of the outer lobe. The Paussidae, as far as known, differ from the Carabidae by the prostheca of the mandibles and the smaller number of segments of the legs. It may, however, be assumed that the more primitive genera or first-stage larvae of the Paussidae will deviate to a lesser degree, or may even work out as Ozaenini in the key.

It will be difficult to recognise from the characters stated above, and from those in the keys, full-grown larvae of *Brachinus* and it will, indeed, be impossible to identify full-grown larvae of certain species of *Lebia* (*L. scapularis* Fourcroy) which are semi-parasitic on beetle-pupae. These third-stage larvae of *Lebia* live in a cocoon with only the head protruding and embedded in their prey, their legs consist of only two or three joints and a claw, the mouthparts are very stout, and some of the joints of antennae and mouth-parts are fused.

General characters of the Carabid Larvae: Head directed forward or slightly upward, head-capsule formed by paired parietalia which are contiguous in a single ventral gular suture (figs. 5, 8, 94) and usually on posterior part of dorsum in an epicranial suture (figs. 3, 4, 16, etc.). In front of the latter the parietalia enclose a frontal piece (figs. 5, 17, etc.). The median part of the front margin of the latter is usually called nasale (na figs. 4, 9, 29; mesolabrum Lapouge), and the lateral parts are referred to as adnasalia (ad figs. 4, 9, 29; exolabrum Lapouge) in this paper. The neck may be absent or defined by a simple constriction (figs. 3, 4, 22) or a transverse, curved groove on the lateral surface, which is usually emphasised by a cervical keel (figs. 9, 11, 12, 23) along the posterior margin of the groove. This cervical keel is of considerable systematic importance. Ocelli six, never more,

² An abnormal seventh ocellus on one side has been found in a specimen of Scarites from Ukerewe.

sometimes fewer or none. Antennae (fig. 51) four-jointed, in a few genera (Tefflus, some Pterostichini) with an additional short joint at base (figs. 21, 56), sometimes the second and third joints fused (Anthiini, fig. 16), the third joint usually with a sensorial appendage on exterior side of apex (figs. 4, 12, 56). Mandibles more or less falciform or subtriangular (figs. 10-12, 59, Harpalini, Zabrini, Amarini), almost always with a retinaculum, usually with a subbasal penicillus on cutting edge (figs. 57-59). Maxillae, when seen from the side, inserted approximately level with mandibles (i.e., ventral mouth-parts not retracted, fig. 23); stipes more or less rectangular, very seldom with a lobiform hairy process at interior side of apex (fig. 16. Anthiini), inner lobe absent (figs. 46, 48, 49) or present in shape of a coniform to styliform chitinous process with or, seldom, without a single seta (figs. 47, 50, 52, 55); outer lobe two-jointed, palpiform, very seldom the basal segment fused with stipes and hairy (fig. 17, Helluonini), palpiger 3 of the shape of a palpal segment, palpi usually three-jointed, seldom the third joint subdivided into two jointlets (fig. 48 Loricerini, fig. 49 Trechini). Labium (figs. 60-62) with a mentum 4 of almost always inverted trapezoidal form, at its apex with a usually small, chitinous, bisetose ligula and two-jointed palpi (the second joint subdivided in Loricera, most Trechini-fig. 49-and many Chlaeniinifig. 62). Dorsum of the segments covered by a single, large tergite, which is divided by a very fine, pale median line, very rarely more broadly divided in middle (Orthogoniini) or absent. Abdomen formed by ten segments, the ninth usually with a pair of dorso-apical appendages, the cerci,5 tenth usually tubular, acting as a proleg and often armed with a pair of protrusible tubes (fig. 71) which may be adorned with chitinous smaller or larger crotchets (figs. 81, 86, 88). Lateral abdominal sclerites (figs. 70, 88, 89, etc.), two on each side, an epipleurite (sometimes divided into two separate sclerites, fig. 75) to the outer side of the tergite and the annuliform spiracle, and a hypopleurite on latero-ventral surface of the abdomen. Ventral surface (figs. 87-89) with five sclerites, an anterior ventrite and two pairs of postventrites 6 behind it; these are usually more or less fused on the eighth

The morphology of the labium of the larva of Carabus has been discussed by Bengtsson (1927, Lunds Univ. Arsskr. (n.f.) (2) 24 (2): (20)). Anderson's interpretation (1936, Smithson. misc. Coll. 95: 13) is not accepted in the present paper for the reasons

explained in 1938, Trans. R. ent. Soc. Lond. 87:4.

tergite, exactly as in Cryptophagus and other Polyphaga.

The terms "ventrite" and "postventrite" are introduced to replace Schiödte's terms sternum and sternella, as Sir Guy Marshall drew my attention to the fact that in insects with their marked distinction between thorax and abdomen the expression sternum should be reserved for the ventral parts of the thorax, whereas for the abdomen" ventrites" would be adequate. This seems to be advisable from a morphological as well as from a practical

³ In my earlier papers I counted the palpiger as the first joint of the palp. Owing to the particular relations of this joint with the outer lobe in Cicindelinae, Histeridae, Hydrophilidae and other groups, I now return to Schiödte's way of counting the palpiger separately and regarding the normal palpus of Carabidae as three-jointed.

I consider it very doubtful whether new discoveries or theories of a comparative morphological character should always result in a change of terms in systematic descriptions. In the case of the cerci of the beetle-larvae (recently often called pseudocerci or urogomphi), however, even the morphological evidence points to their homology with the cerci on the tenth abdominal segment of primitive insects. In some larvae of Carabidae these appendages are inserted behind the ninth tergite and separated from it by a narrow membranous zone, e.g. in Nebriini (fig. 69), Panagaeini (fig. 80) and many Chlaeniini (fig. 79). In some of the latter the cerci are multiannulate and thus quite like those of primitive insects, except for the fact that they are inserted behind the ninth and not on the tenth segment. However, even in primitive insects, e.g. Periplaneta orientalis L., the cerci are inserted near the base of the segment between tergite and ventrite. If these two sclerites are prolonged and strongly convex, so as to form the cylindrical, narrow tenth abdominal segment of the larvae of CARABIDAE, which acts as an auxiliary leg, and which still usually shows the lateral suture between tergite and ventrite (figs. 69, 70, 78), the cerci must automatically be pushed forward on to the membrane between the ninth and tenth segments, as in Nebria etc. This condition, however, is in the single family CARABIDAE connected by every transition with the fixed coniform cerci of Cychrus, which are only spine-shaped extensions of the ninth

and wholly fused on the ninth and tenth segments, seldom partly fused on other segments. A pair of minute praeventrites is often visible in well-extended larvae (pr. in figs. 71, 88).

Besides identification from systematic characters (determinatio ex systemate) that by breeding from adult to larva (det. ex ovipositione) or larva to adult (det. ex evolutione imaginis) will supply reliable working material. In the latter case individual breeding is necessary, not only because of the carnivorous habits of these larvae but, much more important, in order to avoid misidentifications resulting from the breeding of a lot of larvae, the mixed nature of which was not realised, or from strange larvae introduced inadvertently with earth or plants (see Drypta dentata in list of material p. 80). In many cases, however, more indicative identifications will have to be used, and there is little that is objectionable in this procedure, so long as it is made clear that the larva has not been bred. If a preserved pupa with last larval skin is available, it may be possible to identify the exuvia from the characters of the adult recognisable in the pupa (det. ex futura imagine). Other indications may be given ex patria, ex domicilio, ex societate imaginis, etc. I have discussed these possibilities in one of my early papers (1922, Ent. Jahrb. 1923: 102), but there is one indication which needs some further comment, that of size (det. ex magnitudine).

Size in holometabolous insects is perhaps the only larval character directly correlated with the characters of the adult. By itself, however, it can only be used in a very restricted way, as a small larva may either be a young instar of a large beetle or a full-grown small form. Moreover, the length of a larva is very much influenced by its state of nourishment or impending transformation. For these reasons, it can only be said that a well-extended larva of a certain size cannot belong to an adult of less than roughly two-thirds that length (e.g. Feronia madida adult 13-17 mm., larva up to 25 mm.). If the larva belongs to a systematic group of very slender adults, the adult could not be shorter than four-fifths or five-sixths of its length. Thus, the third-stage larva of Clivina fossor L. measures 6.7 mm., whereas the length of the adult is 5.5-6.3 mm.

A much greater use of the size is possible, as soon as the larval instar ⁷ is known. In many cases, the generic identification of a larva will supply a clue to the stage concerned. Moreover, the first larval stage is recognisable by fewer hairs, a proportionately larger head, and above all by the egg-bursters, which are very seldom absent. ⁸ These organs were discussed at length in a previous paper (1925, Z. wiss. Zool. 126:622) and are found in Carabid larvae along the inner side of the hind part of the frontal sutures (fig. 4). They are either keel-shaped, more or less abruptly terminating anteriorly in a short spine (Carabini, Nebriini, Notiophilini fig. 4, Omophronini, Elaphrini, Helluonini, Anthiini, Dryptini, Broscini, Pterostichini, some Chlaeniini, Panagaeini, Licinini, some Amarini, Zabrini fig. 69) or thorn-shaped. In the latter case the spines may be simple and paired (Lebiini: Cymindis, Parena, Calleida, Onota or Otoglossa, Oecornis, some Harpalini: Barysomus?, some Amarini, fig. 67), a single spine

point of view, as it dispenses with the continuous repetition of the word abdominal. Correspondingly the term tergites always refers to the dorsal shields of the abdomen and nota to those of the thorax.

⁷ The CARABIDAE pass through three larval stages so far as is known. Two stages only, probably an individual abnormality, were recorded by me in a single larva of Amara ingenua Duftschmid (1924, in Blunck, Syllabus Insektenbiol. 1:28), two stages only seem to be indicated by the material of Dicheirotrichus, and some Helluonini may perhaps have more than three larval stages (see p. 81).
⁸ Apparently in all the Trechini, Brachinus and perhaps some Helluonini.

on median line (some Brachinini: *Pheropsophus* fig. 70), a paired row of spines (most Harpalini fig. 68, some *Chlaenius* with filiform cerci, some Bembidiini: *Asaphidion* —sometimes with only two pairs of spines—fig. 66—as also in *Arsinoë*—fig. 14—and some *Calleida*) or a paired area of irregularly arranged spinules (fig. 65 *Bembidion*). Apart from the exceptions mentioned in note 8 all the larvae without egg-bursters must, then, belong to the second and third larval stages. In many cases two stages will be available, which will usually allow definite determination of the instars.

In studying several stages of one species it has been observed that the growthfactor is practically equal from the first to the second and from the second to the third stage, 10 and, moreover, that this factor varies to only a moderate extent within the whole family or most of it (see table, factors a and b). In the same way a factor can be worked out, which correlates the size of the larva with that of the adult. The length of the adult is a rather clearly defined measurement, but that of the larva cannot be used for the reasons explained above. A very suitable measurement instead is the width of the head, which is subject only to a very slight degree of change within the duration of a larval stage. 11 The factor which brings the head-width of the larva up to the length of the adult must naturally be expected to differ in large-headed larvae, such as those of the Harpalini, especially Harpalus rufipes, and small-headed ones, such as those of Licinini, but it will as a rule be approximately alike in larvae of a subgenus, genus or even a tribe. Thus, after finding the genus or group of genera, one will be able to decide from a first-stage larva what must be the approximate size of the adult. A larva, which is not of the first stage, will in the same way lead to two possible sizes for the adult, of which one will often be excluded as too large or too small for the genus, or group of genera, in the locality of the larva. The values of these factors for the different stages of a number of genera and species are listed in the table p. 8. I have found these factors an important aid in identifying larvae, as will be seen from some of the remarks in the list of material.

The factors a and b vary between 1.0 and 1.8, as far as is known, and if extreme cases, due to single specimens, are excluded and the greater deviations between a and b in one and the same species are eliminated by using the average of the two values, $1\cdot3-1\cdot4$ becomes still more the predominant growth-factor in Carabid-larvae. As to factors c, d, and e, the large c of the Brachinini and Arsinoë stands out and is doubtless to be explained by the ectoparasitic habits of the larvae. The number of eggs is obviously large and their size proportionately small, as a large proportion of the first-stage larvae may be expected not to succeed in finding their hosts and to perish. In other cases (e.g. Sphodrus and its relatives) the large factors c-e are obviously caused by the slenderness of the adult, as the small values in Harpalini are due to the stout build of the adults and the wide head of the larvae.

The classification of the ground-beetles seems to be fairly well established for

⁸ Boldori, 1939, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 71: 102, 110 figs. 6 and 7.

¹⁰ Gardner 1933, *Indian Forest Rec.* (Ent.) 17 (8): 1-3. Actually the relative growth, of course, must diminish with the duration of growth as in other animals, but this tendency is not very conspicuous, where only two steps of larval growth can be checked as in Carabidae.

¹¹ Emden, 1929, Schrift. phys. ökon. Ges. Königsberg 66 (2) (Zehlau-Heft): 276, note 3. Gardner (1933, Indian Forest Rec. (Ent.) 17 (8): 1) used the length of the frontal piece. As this is inclined forward in undissected larvae, its exact measure is often difficult to obtain, and, since a large number of such larvae have had to be measured for this paper, the headwidth has been deemed more convenient.

adults as well as larvae and seems to be practically congruent in the two stages, if the usual ¹² system of the adults, as accepted, e.g. by Ganglbauer (1892, Käfer Mitteleur. 1), Jacobson (1905, [Col. Russia W. Europe]), Csiki (1927–33, CARABIDAE in Schenkling-Junk, Col. Cat.) and Andrewes (1929, Fn. Brit. India, Carabidae 1:47; 1935, loc. cit. 2:1), and my former (1919) and present key to the larvae are compared.

The weak spot in the present system of classification of larvae is the subfamily Carabinae, for which no common character has yet been found, so that it is necessary to separate these tribes singly. However, they have at least a negative character in common, which, though not being suitable for determination, nevertheless indicates that the group is different from the rest. This negative character is the instability of the inner lobe, which is present or absent in very closely related genera in this group. e.g., respectively in Nebria and Leistus, Blethisa and Elaphrus, Storthodontus and some Scarites, Clivina and Dyschirius.

The huge remainder of the larvae of CARABIDAE is divided into two groups according to the presence or absence of the maxillary inner lobe. This is, in my opinion, still the most important character in the classification of these larvae in spite of a few drawbacks, which have become apparent during the last twenty years. All the groups centering round Harpalini, Pterostichini, Chlaeniini etc., i.e., the HARPALINAE impilae (Emden, 1936, Ent. Blätt. 32:41 HARPALINAE with the elytra entire and without a seta in the mandibular scrobe) have in the larval stage a coniform inner lobe, whereas the HARPALINAE piliferae and truncatipennes are devoid of this chitinous cone. The Orthogoniini, which have often been regarded as Truncatipennes, cannot be separated from Glyptus either as adults or larvae—which belongs near the Harpalini. Among the Harpalini impilae, however, the inner lobe becomes very small in Calathus (fig. 47) and some Abacetus, and is practically lost in Diceromerus (fig. 54) and absent in Caelostomus. There may be an actual relationship between the subtribe Drimostomina of the Pterostichini, to which the last two genera belong, and the Nomiini in the HARPALINAE piliferae, as suggested from adult characters by Tshitsherine (1902, Hor. Soc. ent. ross. 35:508). The small inner lobe of Leptotrachelus is particularly interesting. This genus is in the adult stage placed either in the tribe Ctenodactylini, or if the latter be united with it, in Colliurini, the elytra being more or less truncate in the latter tribe but complete in the former, though it is obviously related to the Colliurini. Bates (1883, Biol. centr.-amer. (Coleopt.) 1:152, 158) created the two groups Subtruncati and Obtusipennes for the adults of respectively Lachnophorini and Ctenodactylini, emphasising their intermediate position between Colliurini and Anchomenina.

The only, but the most puzzling, case, in which the inner lobe is present in HARPALINAE piliferae, a group which has otherwise lost this organ, is Azonya, a genus of Broscini. The lobe is quite well developed in this genus, no doubt of any kind as to the identification is possible, and the adult is an absolutely typical member of the Broscini. Perhaps the inner lobe may here be explained as an atavism, though this term is rather worn out. The adults of the Broscini, too, are one of the most puzzling groups of CARABIDAE, and I have recently found out that some of the genera (e.g. Cnemacanthus) even have the paramera

12 The other modern classification of the adults by Sloane (1923, Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. 1923: 242) does not conform either to the present arrangement of the larvae or to that given by Böving and Craighead (1931, Ent. amer. (n.s.) 11: 19), nor, so far as I can see, can it be imitated in the classification of the larvae. On the other hand, Böving and Craighead's classification does not follow either system of adults, nor does the study of more material confirm it, as the number of exceptions would be considerable.

					Hea	Head-width of	Jo 1				-			Factors 13	9	
Species		Ist	lst-stage larva	rva	2nd	2nd-stage larva	LVB	3rd-	3rd-stage larva	LVB	Length					
											adult	8	-0	•	~	,
		nin.	aver.	max.	min.	aver.	max.	min.	aver.	max.			,)	3	υ
Cychrus caraboides	•	1	1	ı	1	1.81	ı	1	1	1	15.5-20	1	1	1	8.6	1
Cychrus attenuatus	•	1	1		1.43	1.63	1.79	1	1	1	13-18	1	1	1	9 6	
Scaphinotus debilis			1	1	1	1.43			1.84	1	9-12	1	1:3	1	7.4	5.7
Spaderoderus tecontes.	•	1	1	1	ı	I		I	2.25	1	13.5-16	ı	Ī	I	1	9.9
Cerogiossus suturaiis.	•	1	I	I	1	1	l	2.62	5.68	2.72	15-20	I	1	1	1	6.5
Cucosoma sycophania		1	1	1	İ	1		1	3.48	1	24-30	1	1	1	1	0.9
Catosoma scrutator	•	1	1		1	3.01		ı	4.2	1	25-36	1	1.4	1	10:1	7.3
Carosoma inquisitor		1	I		1	1		ı	2.86		16-21	1	1	I	I	6.5
Caraous auratus		1.92	I	2.13	I	2.65	1	1	3.56		22-27	:	1:3	12.1	9.5	6.9
Caraous cancellatus	•	1	1	I	1.85	١	1.87	2.51	1	5.69	19-24	1	1.4	1	11.6	80
Cardous nemoralis	•	1.69	1.7916	5. 8.	23	2.305	2.35	2.79	2.9413	3.17	20-26	Ŀ	i.	12.8	100	7.8
Carabus granulatus		1	1.26	I	8	1.683	1.81	5.09	1	2.23	17-23	1:3	1:3	15.9	11.9	9.3
Caraous utrichi		5.5 	1	5	1	ı		1	1		26-30	1	1	12.4	1	1
Caraous glabratus	•	1	1.83	1	2.13	2.173	2.21	1	5.69	j	22-26	1.2	1.2	13.1	11:1	6.8
Curuous convexus	•	1	1	1	1	1		1.81	ı	- 6:	15-18	1	1	1	1	6.8
Carabus hortenses		1.74	1.8	1.85	i	53	I	1	2.79	1	23-30	1:3	1.2	14.7	11.5	9.5
Carabus nutens			1	1	I	1		I	1.67	1	13-18	1	ı	1	1	9.3
Carabus problematicus			I		2.57	2.367	2.48	ı	1	1	22-32	1	1	1	11.4	1
Carabus auronatens		1	I	1	1	1		3.11	3.163	3.21	18-26	I	1	1	1	2.0
Carabus violaceus		1	83	1	1	١	l	.	3.44	3.6	18-34	1	1	14.2	1	9.2
Cardous corraceus	•	2 . 4	2.68	6, 60,	1	بن بن		4∙3	4.418	4.6	34 40			13.8	10.6	8.4
Eurypeoria complanata		1	1	1	1	2.62	1	l	3.28	1	17-23	1	 	1	7.6	6.1
Wedta brevicous	•	œ O	0.87	0.91	1.15	1:24	1:34	1.57	99.	1.81	9-14]. 4	1.4	13.2	က္	8.9
Iveoria nemprichi		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2.13		13-15	1	١		1	9.9
Neorra andalustaca		3 5	1	0.87	1:19	ı	1.26	1.74		1.78	11-13	1.4	1.4	14.0	8.6	8.9
Wedra gyllenhals	•	0.91	1	₹ 6.0	I	1.15	1	1.53		1.73	9-12		1.4	7	6	6.4
Ly eura troida	•		86.0		1			1	98	I	14-16	1	I	15.3	ı	7.3
Iveoria jockischs		1	1.15		1	1		(1.74)	1	90,	13-15	1	1	12.2	1	7.4
iveoria angusticollis		1	ı		I	86.0		1	1	1	7.5-9.5	1	I		œ	1
A ebria heeri			1		1	1		1.33	1.35	1.36	8-9-5	1	1	I	1	6.5
-		=	_	=	-	-	*	-	-	-	=		_	-	_	

Leistus spinibarbis	•	1		. 	18	1.22	18	18	13	15	9-11	i	1:	1	8.5	1:
Leistus forminatus	•	189	189	1 89	56.	88	8	86.0	<u> </u>	3 5	6.5 7.5	1 :		1	× 0	7 6
Notiophilus biguttatus	• •	0.48	0.49	0.50	0.50	0.56	0-61	0.79	0.85	0.87	5-5-5	ΞΞ		10.7	9.4	9
Physea setosa		I	ı	1	ı	l	1	1	5.00	١	13-15	I	1]	1	2.0
Omophron limbatum .	٠	1	0.52	1	1	1		1	99	ı	9	1	1	11.5	1	9.9
Omophron rothschildi	•	1	I		1	0.87		1.26	ද	1:34	7.5-8.5	1	1.5	1	9.5	6.2
Loricera pilicornis	•	1	ı		0-73	1	0.77	1.08	1.10	1.15	2-8	1	1.5	ı	- - - - -	8.9
Elaphrus riparius	•	١	0.49	1	89.0	1	0.71	66-0	1.05	1.08	6.5-7.5	1.4	1.5	14.3	10-1	6.7
Elaphrus cupreus	•	1	I	1	ı	l	l	1.05	1.12	1.15	7.6–9	1	I		1	7.4
	•	١	1	1	ı	1		1	1.53	1	11-13	1	١	1	1	7.8
Storthodontus amplipennis.	•	١	3.0	1	ı	1	1	ı	ı		40-50	1	1	11.5		1
Dyscherus praelongus	٠	1	1	1	1	4. ₹	1	ı		1	31-41.5	1	I	1	8.2	1
Scarites semicarinatus	•	1	1	1	1	2.48	1	1	I	1	16-22	1	I	1	7.7	1
Scarites cyclops	•	1	1		1	1	1	l	6:3	l	28-42	1	1	1	ľ	5.6
Scarifes sulcatus	•	1	1		1	4.2	1	5.4	I	6.2	28 43	ı	1.4	١	8.5	6.1
Scarites quadriceps	•		1		2.30	2.39	2.44	ı	1	1	19-29	1	1	ı	10.0	1
Scarites abbreviatus	•	1	I	1	1	1	I	1	3.24		18-28	I	١	1	1	7:
Scarites molossulus	•	1	l	ı	2.58	1	5.69	4.5	1	4.1	26-33	1	1.7	1	11.2	6.4
Clivina fossor	•	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.84	1	5.5-6.2	ı	1	1	I	2.0
Dyschirius arenosus	•	1	I	1	ı	0.45		1	ı	1	4-5	1	١	1	10-0	1
Perileptus areolatus	•	ı	0.26		ı	0.38	1	1	1		2.6-2.8	1.5	١	10-4	7:1	
Aepopsis robini	•	1	ı	I	1	1		0.40	1	0.42	2.2	1	1		1	6.1
Typhlotrechus hauckei	•	I	1		1	0.98	1	1	1	I	8-7-	1	1		1:1	1
Typhlotrechus hacqueti .	•	1	1		1	ı		ı	9		6.5-7	1	1	1	1	6.4
Speotrechus humeralis	•	1	1	ı	ı	99.0	1	1	08.0		5-5-5	1	1.5	ı	7.7	9.9
Trechus pulchellus	•	1	I		1	0.31	l	1	1	1	2.5-3.5	1	1	1	9.7	1
Asaphidion flavipes .	•	1	0.39	١	ı	ı	1	1	<u>\$</u>		4-4.5	1	1	10.9	1	5.1
Bembidion fasciolatum	•	0.40	0.41	0.42	1	0.63		1	1	l	5.5-6	ij	1	14.0	6	ļ
Bembidion testaceum	•	1	0.35	1	1	1	ı	ı	ı	1	4.5-5.5	1	1	14.3	1	1
Bembidion dalmatinum .	•	0.40	1	0.41]	1		1]	l	9	1	1	13.6	1	1
Bembidion laterale	•	1	1	1	l	1	1	1	0.0	l	4	1	ļ		1	50
Tachys nanus	•	1	1	1	ı		1	1	0.52		2.8-3	1	١	1	ı	5.4
Tachys vivax	•	1	1		1	1		1	0.43		2.2-2.5	ı	1	1	1	5.5
Tachys incurvus	•	I	1	ı	1	1		1	0.41	1	1.7-2.3	1	1	1	1	4.9
Pogonus luridipennis	•	I	1	1	0.94	1.02	1.08	1.40	1.4	1.50	6-8-5	1	1.4	1	7.1	2.0
Broscus cephaloles	•	1.74	1.93	20.2	2.50	2.66	2.83	3.6	3.68	3.8	17-22	1.4	1.4	10.1	7.3	5.3
Axonya championi .	•	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1-47	1	9.5-11	1	1	1	1	2.0
	-		_	-	-	_	-		_	-		-	_	-	-	_

				He	Head-width of	h of				1			Factors 13	a	
Species	lst	lst-stage larva	LIVB	2nd	2nd-stage larva	LLV8.	3rd-	3rd-stage larva	rva	of of adult			-	-	
	min.	атег.	max.	min.	aver.	max.	min.	aver.	max.		8	9	v	q	v
Deltomerus corax	1	1	1	ı	1.20	ı	1.88	1	2.18	11.5-12		1.7		ď	9.
Diplous aterrimus		1		1		1	1	8	ı	9-13	1	. 1	1	3 1	3 2
Caelostomus picipes	1	١		1	0.75	l	1	1	1	9	ı	1	1	œ	;
Diceromerus orientalis	1	1		1			1	1.80	ļ	8.5-9.5	1		1	3	5.0
Cratocerus sulcatus		1	1	١	0.29			I		4.25-4.5	1	1	1	7.5	3 1
Sphodrus leucophinalmus		1.26		ı	١	1	3.23	1	3.53	2040	1		23.8	1	6.0
Fristonychus terricola		1		1	1.37		1.88	20.5	5.19	13-17	1	1.5	1	10.9	4.7
Laemostenus complanatus		1	1		1.39	1		2.14	ı	12.5-15	I	1.5	1	6.6	6.4
Laemostenus carinthiacus	0.79	683	98.0		1.27	1	J	1.89		14-16	1.5	1.5	18.1	11.8	7.9
Laemostenus boldorus		2 80	1	ı	ı		1.69	1.85	1.95	12.5-15	1		16.4	1	7.4
Calathus fuscipes	1	2 5		1.46	1.50	<u> </u>	1.59	1.66	1.76	10-14	8.	:	14.3	8.0	7.5
Calathus erratus		0.71		I	I	1	ı	1		8-13	I	I	14.1	I	1
Calathus micropterus.		1		ı	I	1	1	19	1	7-8	١	1	1	1	7.0
Udontomyx rotundatus		0.53			I		ı	0.91	ı	6-7	١	1	12.3		7:
Agonum ruficorne		1		1	-	1	ı	1.13	1	6-2-9	1	1	1	1	6.9
Agonum assimile	1	1		ı	ı	1	1	17.1	1	10-12.5	1	1	1	1	9.9
Agonum moestum	1	1	1	ı			1.22	1	1.26	7.5-8.5	I	1	1	1	6.5
Agonum ericets	1	0.20		ı	I		1	1		9	1	1	12.0	1	1
Abax ater		1:30		1.87	2.03 03	2.13	2.72	2.91	3.16	18-22	9.	1.4	15.4	6.6	6.9
Abax parallelus		1		ı	1.53		1	1	1	14-17		ı	1	10:1	1
Molops piceus	 	1		ı	1-47		I	1	ı	12-15		1		9.5	1
Evarthrus sigillatus		1	1	1	1		2:34	1	2.42	14.5-17.5	l	1		1	6.7
Evarthrus sodalis		1		1	1		2.20	1	5.3 4	17.5-18.5		1	1	1	7.9
Trichosternus vigit	1			I	2.37	1	ı	1	I	20-23	I	I	1	6	1
Feronsa globosa	1	1	1	1	1	1	I	2.51		15-17		1	1	1	4.9
Feronia madida	1.22		1.25	1.50	1.68	1.84	2.23	2.41	2.57	13-17	1.4	1.4	12.1	8.9	6.2
Feronia lucublanda		1	1	1.29	1:32	1.39	١	1.66	ı	10-14	1	1:2	ı	8.9	7.5
Feronia gebieri		l	1		13		2.62	1	8	16-17-5		I	ı	1	6.9
r eronta uncsulata					÷	l	I	1	ı	2-1-2	I	I		9. 9.	1
retonia lustrans		1		ı	I	l	1	1.78	1	9.5-11.5	1	1	1	1	5.9
_	=	_	=	-	_	=	-	_	-	_	_	-		_	

7.3	1	0	ģ	-	t	9	0.0	4.4	1		5.4	5.5		8.5		9	ည်	4.1	4.9	5.0	4.8	5.6	4.1	6.7	4.7	5.4	4.9	2.2	4.7	4.6	<u>.</u>	7.9	9.8	6.2	9.9	÷	2.6	6.1	5.3	1	3.4
1	11.0	7.11	တ်		0	0.0	1	1		1	1	8.8	6.9	0.00	2		ç. X	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	6.1	1	1	1		1	1	7.5	1	1	7.3	0.9
		1	1	13.1	1	1	12.8	14.8	10	12.0	1	١	œ	3	14.0	R.#1	12.6	1	1	1	8.4	1	1	12.3	1	1	8.4	1	8.7	1	1	1	1	0.6 —	1	1	1	١	1	9.0	1
1	,	#.T	1.4		-	7.1	1	1		l	1	1.7	:	1.7	*	1	9. -	1	1	1	١	1	١	1	1	١	1	1	1	1:3	1	1	1	1:5	1	1	1:3	1	1	1	1.8
	-		1				1	1			١	1	e.	_	•		_	1		1	1		1	1	1	1	١	1	1			1	1						_	1.2	-
15	31.71	CI-#1	13-17	0 19	1	14-10:0	ų,	25.7		13-15	14-18	12-14	10-19.5	19 18	01-01	12-14	14-16	12-13	9-13	8-10	11-14	10-13	17-21	7.5-9.5	4.7-5.7	5.5-6.5	9-10	5.5-8	7-9	7.5-9.5	6.5-7.5	15-16	13-18	5.5-7.5	9.5-10.8	7-9	11-13	10-13-5	8.5-10	8-10	11-14.5
2.20	9	1.92	2.76		3	20.02	99	1.09	3	1	1	1		 	ן ל	1.67	5.86	1	5.29	1.61	2.70	1	١	1	1.20	1.20	1	1	1	1.84	1.43	5.06	1	1.13	1.65	1	١	1	1.82	1	4.10
5.06		CS-T	2.22				0.93	8.	3	l	2.97	2.50	3	0 50	3.7	I	2.73	3.07	2.13	1.53	5.29	5.06	4.60	1.26	1.10	1:11	1.95	1.22	1.70	1.74	1.38	1.97	1.81	1.05	1.54	1.37	2.13	1.91	1.74	1	1
1.99	i	1.74	2.37			CR.T	0.87	7.64	5]	1	١		l		1.57	2.51	1	1.95	1.43	2.48	1	1	١	9	1.05	1	I	1	1.60	1.27	1.92	1	96-0	1.43	١	1	1	1.65		3.50
1		1	1.99			1	l			1	1					1	88.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	١	1	1	١	1		1	1		1	1	1	١	١	1	I
i	6	1.23	1.80	-		1.65	١	-		1	1	1.47	.69:	3 6	00.1	l	1.76		!	1	1	1	1	١	1	1	١	١	1	1:31	1	1	1	l	1	1	1.67	1	١	1:24	2.14
I		1	1.67			1	1	-	1	1	1	1				1	1.61	1	١	1	l	١	l	١	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	١	1	1	1	1	١	١	1	1
1		1	1				0.44	١		- 7 1.	1	1	1.90	7.7	1 8		1.26	1	1	1	1.58	-	l	69-0	1	1		١	0.94	i	1	1	1	0.73	1		1	1	I	1.01	1
1	-			00.0	00.0	1	0.43	0.66	3	1	1	-				1	1:19	1	1	1	1.48	١	1	69.0	1	1	1.13	1	0.92	1	1	١	1	0.72	1	1	١	l	1	1.00	1
1		1	1	-		1	0.42		;	1:10	1	1	1.99	77.1	1 3	\$	1.12	1	1	1	1.39	I	١	0.68	1	1	1	I	06.0	1	1	l	1	0.71	1	1	1	١	١	0.99	1
•	,	•		_		•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•						•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•		. •
•	•	•		,	•	•		•		•		•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•						•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Sugar				•	
Feronia superciliosa.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	l'eronsa corvina	Fermia melanaria	L'Innananadada	r eronu ootongopamaa	Feronia stygica.	Feronia dilinens	Possession minusipa	onna nagrada	Feronia multipunctata	Formia molonai	Forming nothing	one demice .	retonta muta	Feronsa cristala	Feronia permunda	Zabrus tenebrioides .	Zabrus crassus .	Amara obesa	Amara equestris	Amara aulica	Amara converiuscula.	Amara aigantea	Amara similata	Amara musculus	Amara bifrons .	Amara ingenua	Amara quenseli	Amara consularis	Amara fulva	Amara apricaria	Orthogonius schaumi.	Orthogonius assmuthi	Dicheirotrichus pubescens	Anisotarsus savi	Trichonsolanhus suhiridese	Amendactulus binotatus	Anisodactulus mediloides	Ammhaeia interstitialis	Dischamus germanus	Euryderus zabroides .
Fer	,	į	For	Į.	1	ret	For	-		Fer	For	F. O.		10	ret	Fer	Zab	Zab	Am	Am	Am.	Am	4	Am	Am	Am	Am	Am	Am.	Am	Am	010	0	j.	Ans	J.	4 22	4 20	4	7	Eur

	•				Hes	Head-width of	Jo 1						E.	Factors 13		
Species		1st.	lst-stage larva	EA.	2nd-	2nd-stage larva	LLAS	3rd-	3rd-stage larva	IVB	of of					
·		min.	aver.	max.	min.	aver.	max.	min.	aver.	max.		B	9	v	g	v
Cratacanthus dubius .			ı	I	1	1	1	2.48		2.51	7.5-9.8	I		Ti	Ti	e.
Harpalus puncticollis		1.08	1.14	1.19	ı	1		1	1	1	6-10		١	7.0		6 1
Harpalus azureus	•	1	1	1	1	1.47	1	١	ı	ı	7-9	١	1	<u> </u>	5.4	
Harpalus stictus	•	1.28	1.29	1:31	1.65	1.79	1.95	2.40	2.49	2.63	10-12.5	1.4	1.4	8.7	6.53	7.7
Harpalus rufipes		1.85	2.12	2.36	5.40	5.66	5.89	2.83	5.64	3.01	14-16	1:3	Ξ	7:1	5.6	5.5
Harpains calceatus			1. 2.	1	1	1	1	ı	1		13-15	1	1	9.1	1	1
Harpalus compar	•	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3.00	1	13-16-5	1	ı	1	1	4.9
Harpatus ruorspes		1.12	I	1.19	1	1	1	1	5.00	1	<u>%</u>	I	1	8.2	1	4.5
Harpaus nonestus		9	1	8	I	1.50 03	1	1	1	1	7-10	1.4	1	0.8	2.2	ı
Harpaus geneus		1.19	1.33	1-47	1.40	1.63	1.76	1.91	2.31	2.59	9-12	1:2	1.4	6.2	6.4	4.5
Agonoderus uneola		1	1	1	100	1.15	1:24	1.56	1. 24		2-8	1	<u>+</u>	1	6.5	4.6
Drawyceuns rupestris		1	I		1	1	1	1	8		3.4-4.5	1	1	ı		9.9
stenotophus teutonus		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1-05	1	5.5-6	1	1	ı	1	5.5
Acupanpus exiguus	•	1	98.0	1	1	1	1		1		2-2.2	I	1	7.5	1	1
Chaenius nigricornis		1	I	ļ	I	0.94		1	1.29		10-11-5	I	<u>+</u>	1	11.4	8.3
Chiaenius Jestivus		1	1	1	1	1		1	2.14		14.5-16	1	1	1		7:1
Undensus sericeus	•		I		1	ı	1	<u>*</u>	ı		12-16	I	ı	ı	1	3.5
Vodes netroproides		1	1		1	ı	1	1.30 22	1:24		7-8-5	1	I	1	1	6.3
Kembus laticollis	•	1	1	1	1	1	1	1:10	ı	1:20	13-15	I	1	ı	1	12.2
Dicaetus purpuratus		1	1	1	ı	1	1	1	2.30		20-25	1	I	1		8-6
Licinus punctulatus	•	1	₹	1	1	0.9 4	ı	1:15	1.20		13-18	<u>•</u>	<u>ت</u>	16.5	16.5	12.9
Licinus depressus	•	1	1		1	1	1	1			8 - 10	I	ı	1	1	10-7
Fanagaeus crux major		1	1	1	ı	1	1	0.81	1		7.5-8	I	1			0
Teffus muansanus		2.19	2.21	2.53 2.53		9		တ လ	3.85		*	1.4	 	15.4	11:3	œ œ
I effius corpuentus		1	1 3	1	ı	4.70		1	1		47-24		1		10.7	1
Anaulacus fasciatus		0.50	0.51	0.52	1	0.65	1	0.91	1		5.5-6		<u>1</u> .	11:3	8.8	9 5 5
Locodontus triengnatus		1 3	1 !	1		1	1	1:13	1		7.5	1	1	1	1	6 -4
design de		9.50	200	26. 5.5	1:	1	1	1				1;	I	16.7	1	1
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Leons scapularis	•	1))		l	1	l	1	ı		4-5.5	I	l	15.8	1	I
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tata tans illus			1	0.94	1	1	1:31	1	7.5-9	1	1.4	1		6.3
			1	0.00		1	1.28		7-8-5	1	1.4	1		6.1
				1	1	1	0.71		10	1	1	1		20
			1	1		1	0.77		9	1	1			7.8
			1	ı		99-0	0.71	0.75	9	1	1	1		7.7
			1	0.52	l	١	1	1	10		1	1		1
• •			1	0.51	1	0.65	89-0	0.40	4.5-5.5	1	1:3	1		7.4
•			0.57	0.58	99.0	0.74	080	683	6-7	1.5	1.4	16.3	11.2	8.1
				1		1	80	1	6.5-7.5	1	1	1		7.8
Leptotrachelus dorsalis			1	ı	1	ı	28.0	1	8.9	1	1	1		8:1
•			١	1		1	1.27		7-9	1	١	1		6.3
•			1	0.75	1	-	1.05	1	10-5	1	1.4	1		9
•			1	1	I	1	5.30		17-18-5	ı	1	١		7.7
Galerita nigra			I	1		1	2.62		18	1	1	١		8.9
Galerita simplex			I	1		1	1.92	1	14.5	1	1	1		9.2
Mormolyce phyllodes			1	3.45		1	1	ı	45-60	1	1	1		1
•			1	1	ı	1	1	1	17-19-5	1	1	12.0		1
•			1	1.44			1	1	14.5-18		1	14.8		1
vensis			1	1	ı	1	1	l	22-28		1	9-11		1
•			1	9 9		ۍ ن	1	5.4	35-42	<u>.</u>	1.4	12.4		7:2
•			1	1	1		4.5		30-38	İ	i	1		7.3
•			1	1		1	1	1	40-50	1	1	11.0		-
			1	3 5 7	1		1		32	1	1	1		1
				4.7	1		6.5		40-42	1	1.4	ı		6.3
spanicus			I	1			1	1	16-18	1	1	52.0		1
•				1	1	1	1	j	15-18	1	1	43.0	1	1
•			1	1	1		1	1	7-10	1	1	34.0	1	1

13 The factors are as follows: a, head-width of second stage divided by that of first; b, of third by that of second; c, d, e, length of adult divided by head-width of 1st, 2nd and 3rd stages respectively.

14 In the species of Carabus the index-number at the average refers to the number of specimens measured, where more than two larvae of one stage are available. of the HARPALINAE impilae, which was unknown to me in 1936 (Ent. Blätt. 32: 43).

The close relationship between Licinini, Panagaeini and Chlaeniini, obvious in the larvae, is also conspicuous in the adults. Böving and Craighead have, therefore, united the former two groups into one, but the adults would not bear out this conclusion, and the larvae, in spite of the transitional forms, form quite distinctly two aggregates.

Key to the tribes of CARABIDAE-larvae.

1 (2). Cutting edge of retinaculum strongly denticulate. Tergites extremely broad, broadly overhanging the pleurae, with strongly lobate hind angles (see fig. 72), the 9th pointed at hind angles. Inner lobe of maxillae present as a strong cone, bearing a seta (see fig. 52). Cerci very short, horn-shaped, unarmed, and not articulating at the ninth tergite. Antennae at least twice as long as the mandibles, second joint longer than third or fourth, the last joints pubescent 1. Cychrini.

2 (1). Cutting edge of retinaculum very seldom denticulate, but then the tergites not overhanging the pleurae. Cerci seldom short, horn-shaped, and unarmed, but then either the antennae not much longer than the mandibles, or the tergites narrower and exposing the pleural and often latero-dorsal regions (figs. 69-71), or the inner lobe

of maxillae absent (figs. 48, 49).

3 (4). Cerci horn-shaped, short and with one or two (sometimes doubled) teeth or spines (fig. 75), seldom simple and slender, 15 but then they are entirely smooth and bare (fig. 72), and the 9th segment is divided along median line. Antennae usually hardly passing the apex of mandibles, second joint distinctly longer than any of the others, much longer than the fourth, the last joints with only a few setae. Inner lobe of maxillae present as a strong cone, bearing a seta; third joint of the maxillary palpi well developed, usually longer than at least one of the two other joints, never much shorter than one of them. Cerci never articulating at the ninth tergite, though the latter is sometimes divided along median line by a membranous area (fig. 72). Apex of last joint of labial palpi with one or two subcircular sensoria which may be fused into one oblong sensorium 2. Caral

4 (3). If the cerci are horn-shaped, i.e. heavily chitinised and gradually pointed, and upcurved, they are unarmed; if they are long and slender, they are not entirely bare or the ninth abdominal tergite is entire.

5 (6). Cerci articulating at the ninth tergite (fig. 69), unjointed, leathery, slender (much longer than the tenth segment) and provided with a few nodules, bearing setae (and, in older larvae, sometimes sparse, fine hairs). Nasale with 4-6 strong teeth, or a horn bearing these and often a very small unpaired median one (figs. 3, 4). Mandibles very long, slender and curved, with a well-developed retinaculum. First antennal joint as long as or longer than second

3. Nebriini, Notiophilini.

15 The definition of the larvae of Carabini is complicated by the fact that the cerci of Ceroglossus (found only in the Andes from Tierra del Fuego to central Chile: Prov. Colchagua) are long, straight and simple and that those of the first stage are said to be jointed and are figured as having single, small setae (Claude-Joseph), and that the cerci of Calosoma in the first stage (with egg-bursters traceable at the inner side of the posterior half of the frontal sutures) are often simple (Lapouge). Otherwise the cerci of the Carabini are very distinctive and will enable the larvae to be recognised at once. The first-stage larva of Ceroglossus would probably be traced to Licinini or Panagaeini in the present paper, but would fit neither tribe.

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6 (5). If the cerci articulate at the ninth segment, they are either jointed (fig. 79), or very short (shorter than the tenth segment), or only beset

with numerous fine hairs (fig. 80).16

7 (8). Ninth abdominal segment transformed into a large terminal disc with a fringe of short setae (fig. 2). The disc consists of three pairs of sclerites, the ventral of which are more or less deeply divided in tongues. Maxillae (fig. 5) with a long and strong inner lobe, which is not much shorter than the outer lobe. Antennae with the first and third joints long, the second and fourth very short. Abdomen upcurved, with the tergites indistinct. Trochanters and femora very long, tibiae and tarsi very short, not longer than wide, tarsi with two unequal claws (fig. 41)

8 (7). Ninth abdominal segment more or less tapering, not transformed into

a terminal disc. Tergites usually very distinct.

9(10). Tarsus with a pair of very long and fine, curved empodial hairs (between the base of the claws), which are much longer than the claws. Ligula and inner lobe of maxilla very long, the former almost as long as the labial palpi, and with the setae on sides, basad of middle, the inner lobe not much shorter than the outer lobe and with the seta small and close to base. Mandibles with two strong teeth, subbasal penicillus absent. Nasale forming a short horn. Second antennal joint shorter than the third, the first joint also short. First to fifth tergites with 3 setae in L I and a dense row of setae (particularly on tergites 3-5) in L III along hind margin of either side. Head not constricted at base. Pronotum much wider than any of the other tergites. Cerci fixed, slightly nodose, with setae. The apex of the femora and tibiae with a whorl of strong setae; two equal claws

5. Omophronini (genus Omophron Latr.). 10 (9). If empodial hairs are present which are longer than the claws (fig. 36), then the inner lobe of maxilla absent. Ligula short, shorter than the first joint of the labial palpi, the setae at apex of dorsal surface or

absent. Mandibles very seldom with two strong teeth.

11(12). Outer lobe of maxillae (fig. 48) very stout, the basal joint more than twice as wide as the first joint of palpi, the second joint produced at apex into a long threadlike process of at least the length of the second joint, the greater part of the latter and the process usually covered by a thick layer of a hyaline exudation, the palpi extremely slender, not very long, terminal joint (as that of labial palpi) divided; inner lobe absent. Ninth tergite divided along median line, the cerci thus movable. Retinaculum of mandible strongly serrate, close to base of mandible, the latter obliquely truncate interiorly. Ligula multisetose. Nasale with a pair of strong spines and some small, pointed 6. Loricerini (genus Loricera Latr.).

12(11). Outer lobe of maxillae never conspicuously stouter than palpus, the second joint without a threadlike process and without exudation.

13(14). Cerci (figs. 73, 74) long, fixed and with conspicuous setiferous processes (except in first-stage larvae). Clypeus with a short though distinct triangular horn, the margins of which are denticulate. inserted more outward from base of mandibles, the outer margins of the antennal foramina reaching more laterad than those of the mandibles. Last joint of maxillary palpi much shorter than first and second. Two equal claws. Tergites strongly margined . 7. Elaphrini.

16 The first-stage larvae of some Chlaeniini fit the definition of Nebriini and would be identified as Pelophila. They differ from the latter larvae by much wider, more or less complete, abdominal tergites, the shorter second joint of the outer lobe, not more strongly projecting paramedian teeth of the nasale, different coloration, etc.

14(13). Cerci (if present) without setiferous processes, but usually with setiferous

nodes (figs. 70, 78, 81).

15(16). Ventral and pleural sclerites (fig. 89) complete, filling up the ventral surface of the abdomen, and separated from each other by narrow sutures, the pleural sclerites filling up the whole length of the segments, tergites rather rectangular, broad and almost completely covering dorsum, nota seldom margined laterally. Maxillary stipes without a hairy lobe on inner side of apex. Abdomen strikingly parallel (fig. 76), the tergites 1-8 of practically equal width. Third antennal joint without appendage (figs. 9, 51), if two claws are present. (The tergites of thorax are margined in Clivina only, in which the sclerites are, moreover, not quite so complete as in the other genera. The strongly depressed, bandshaped cerci, which are excavated on ventro-interior surface—fig. 76—in connection with the parallel abdomen and the single tarsal claw will, however, enable Clivina to be recognised). 8. Scaritini.

16(15). Ventral and pleural sclerites incomplete (figs. 70, 71, 73), more or less broadly separated from each other, seldom as in Scaritini, but then the maxillary stipes extending into a hairy lobe on inner side of apex (fig. 16), or the abdomen tapering in the normal way. Tergites usually exposing spiracles and pleurae more or less broadly, often margined,

the pronotum usually margined. (HARPALINAE.)

17(30). Inner lobe of maxillae absent (figs. 46, 49).¹⁷
18(19). Cerci variable, usually either jointed (figs. 81, 83, 86, 87) or short or coniform (fig. 88) or absent (fig. 1); very seldom of normal length, subcylindrical, leathery, and with some setiferous nodes, but then the tarsi with two claws, and the tergites not margined at sides.

19(18). Cerci of normal length, slender, more cylindrical and tapering by steps (not gradually tapering = coniform), leathery, and with some setiferous nodes, never jointed (see figs. 70, 71). Tarsi with one or two claws, in the latter case either the tergites margined at sides, or the third joint of the maxillary palpi subdivided (fig. 49) into two jointlets (HARPALINAE piliferae).

20(27). One strong tarsal claw, or two claws (very seldom), but then the second joint of the outer lobe much longer than the first, or the third joint of the maxillary palpi and the second of the labial palpi distinctly subdivided (fig. 49). Tergites not margined laterally (except in Axonya of the Broscini, but then the inner lobe present and quite strong).

21(24). Second joint of the outer lobe as long or practically as long as the first joint, usually longer (figs. 46, 49). Nasale usually more or less protruding on the median line (figs. 24-26), seldom broadly truncate. Cerci very evenly rounded interiorly, more or less converging at apex. Cervical keel absent.

22(23). Third joint of the maxillary palpi (fig. 49) subdivided into two, the palpi thus 4-segmented; second joint of the labial palpi usually divided into three (fig. 49). One claw, seldom two 9. Trechini.

22(23). Second joint of the labial palpi and third of the maxillary palpi not subdivided (fig. 46). One claw 10. Bembidiini.

24(21). Second joint of the outer lobe much shorter than the first, never exceeding two-thirds of its length (fig. 6). Nasale broadly produced and truncate or emarginate (fig. 27), never protruding on median line.

¹⁷ The long, lobiform, haired process at the inner apical end of the stipes in Anthiini (fig. 16) is not regarded as a genuine inner lobe.—One exception (Axonya, Broscini) and a few transitions (Ctenodactylini, some Abacetus, Drimostomina) are referred to under both possibilities.

26(25). First antennal joint longer than second and third. Second joint of the maxillary palpi about twice as long as the third and at least two-thirds as long as the first. Cerci with strong setiferous nodes. Ocelli surrounded by a sulcus posteriorly and dorsally, and a more or less distinct pair of shallow furrows on ventral surface, originating from ventral articulation of mandibles, but no ventro-lateral groove present

12. Broscini

27(20). Two tarsal claws, the second joint of the outer lobe at most as long as the first, the third joint of the maxillary palpi and the second of the labial palpi not subdivided. Tergites margined laterally (Caelostomus?). No long adhesive hairs at the base of the claws.

29(28). Mandibles with a penicillus (see figs. 57-59) near base. Second antennal joint distinctly shorter than the first and third. Second joint of maxillary palpi not longer and hardly stouter than the third. ¹⁸

Nasale broadly or hardly produced, adnasalia slightly produced, level with the nasale. Inner lobe usually vestigial (fig. 54)

Pterostichini: Drimostomina etc.

30(17). Inner lobe of maxillae present (figs. 47, 50, 52, 55), almost always with a seta at apex or at side (HARPALINAE impilae).

31(42). Antennae not, or slightly, longer than mandibles (figs. 10-12), hardly ever approaching one-and-one-half times their length, but then either the epicranial suture well developed or the anterior margin of frontal piece not evenly emarginate over its entire width.

32(41). Tergites incomplete, not covering dorso-lateral parts of abdomen (figs. 70, 71). Cerci, if present, always with setiferous nodes.

18 Nasale forming a small, pointed, triangular horn. Second joint of maxillary palpi much longer and somewhat stouter than third. Sclerites dark brown. Cerci with a strong node in middle of outer surface: see first-stage larva (with keel-shaped egg-bursters) of Elaphrus.—I have a puzzling single larva from Poland: Kielce, Netolitzky leg. and ded., which has the head of Elaphrus, but simple cerci, though it is a second or third instar (hw. 1-01 mm.). The claws are very long and slender as in most Masoreini, the tergites are indistinctly margined, the first, the lateral quarter of the second to seventh, and the pronotum being pale testaceous, the rest of the dorsum and the cerci dark brown, with numerous secondary hairs. There seems to be a vestigial inner lobe, and the tergites are almost complete. The larva, thus, combines characters of the Masoreini, Chlaeniini and Elaphrini, but the nasale and insertion of the antennae strongly indicate the latter tribe. Of this, however, no member occurs near Kielce which is likely to have simple cerci in later stages.

33(34). Mandibles slender, at least thrice as long as wide at base (see fig. 6).

Tergites almost always margined laterally, usually coloured in brown shades. Cervical groove distinct (fig. 23), defined posteriorly by a curved keel, seldom absent, but then the neck not defined from temples and, almost always, antennae five-segmented 19 . . . 14. Pterostichini.

34(33). Mandibles more or less stout (figs. 7, 10-12 and 59), less than three times as long as wide at base, usually not more than twice as long as wide, seldom considerably longer, but then the base broad in comparison with the body, the retinaculum near base and only the part between it and apex prolonged and with several teeth (fig. 58). Tergites not margined laterally, usually coloured in yellow shades.

35(38). Claws equal. Maxillary stipes divided near middle by a transverse, membranous zone, the apical part with a longitudinal, comb-like row of strong, inwardly directed setae on dorsum (fig. 10); inner arm of

cardo simple and narrow.

38(35). Claws unequal or only one claw present. Maxillary stipes not divided, inner arm of cardo usually forming a conspicuous, granulose or spinose knob (figs. 11, 50; if this is not present, the claws are very strongly

unequal, or only one claw present).

40(39). Two free claws present. Cerci, ocelli and penicillus of mandible present (figs. 11, 12, 58, 59). Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head (figs. 11, 12), epicranial suture well developed, though not long. Cervical groove present (except in Amblystomus?). Tibia and tarsus longer, usually much longer, than wide 18. Harpalini.

41(32). Tergites complete, more or less completely covering dorso-lateral parts of abdomen, or, if they are less complete, the cerci filiform and pube-scent (fig. 79). Frontal piece often reaching hind margin of head. Neck not defined. Cutting edge of mandibles and retinaculum often minutely serrate, mandibles moderately slender, at least two-and-a-half times as long as wide at base 19. Chlaeniini.

¹⁹ Cervical curved keel absent, the neck defined from temples by a broad impression that connects the temples across dorsum, antennae four-segmented:—a(b) Only one strong claw. Penicillus absent: see Axonya (Broscini).—b(a) Two equal claws. Penicillus present: see first-stage larva of Blethisa (Elaphrini), which probably has cerci without processes and would thus have the characters of the Pterostichini, except for the cervical groove.

42(31). Antennae at least twice as long as mandibles, seldom only slightly more than one-and-a-half times as long (fig. 15, Rembus), but then the frontal piece reaches occipital foramen and is evenly emarginate over its entire anterior width. Neck not defined. Mandibles serrate between retinaculum and apex (except Rembus and Tefflus). Epicranial suture absent or short.

43(44). Front margin of frontal piece membranous and microscopically fringed (Badister?, Dilonchus?, antennae not pubescent), nasale never projecting (fig. 15). Antennae with the normal small number of setae, even on the last two joints, seldom the latter joints pubescent (Dicaelus). Cerci usually fixed, seldom articulating at ninth tergite, but then the anterior margin of frontal piece shallowly emarginate over its entire width 20. Licinini.

44(43). Front margin of frontal piece entirely sclerotised and not fringed, nasale distinctly though often very slightly projecting (figs. 20, 21). Antennae pubescent, at least the last two joints (fig. 21). Cerci (figs. 80, 82) usually pubescent or with small setulae, without nodules, almost always articulating at ninth abdominal tergite (if they are fixed, both the nasale and adnasalia produced and dentate—fig. 21—and the second joint of labial palpi strongly axe-shaped) . . 21. Panagaeini.

45(58). Cerci more or less long and slender, much narrower than tenth abdominal segment (figs. 81, 83, 86, 87), seldom very short or absent, but then the claws with a distinct (though sometimes minute) tooth more or less near middle of ventral surface.

46(57). Two claws. The retinaculum slender, small or absent, more or less near middle or even basad of middle (figs. 13, 14, 19, 22, 34, 57). Ligula small, long and narrow, or absent, the apical setae closely placed or wanting (figs. 13, 14, 19, 22.)

47(56). Neck more or less broad, more than half as wide as head (figs. 13, 14, 19, 22). Cerci with usually 6-11 joints, seldom with more joints (fig. 86), but then the anal tubes with chitinous crotchets. Claws sometimes toothed, or tarsus with an unpaired (but often bilobed) pulvillus (fig. 45), but the individual claws never each with an appendix at base. If the clypeus is horned, the horn is very much shorter than the frontal

48(55). Cutting edge of mandibles smooth between retinaculum and apex, seldom very minutely serrulate, but then the head without a differentiated neck-part.

49(54). First antennal joint as long as or longer than third (fig. 22). Head without a cervical groove or keel before base. Frons not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture present. Claws simple, pulvillus absent. Tenth abdominal segment without protrusible anal tubes and unarmed.20 Tergites testaceous or even paler.

50(53). Claws subequal, strikingly (except in Masoreus) slender and long 20 (fig. 35). Penicillus of mandible present, retinaculum distinct, but only small or moderate. Head-capsule wider than long, neck not constricted. Third antennal joint without a dorsal and a ventral sensorial area, but with an appendage at outer part of apex. Six welldeveloped ocelli.

From the slide at hand, it cannot be ascertained whether the tergites are margined or not in Caelostomus. If they are not margined, this genus would be traced to this paragraph, but it has normal claws and distinct anal tubes which are covered by numerous small crotchets, the cerci show no trace of a segmentation.—The first-stage larva of Elaphrus might also be run down to this paragraph, as the tergites are not distinctly margined. The claws are of normal length, the nasale forms a simple, small, triangular horn, the egg-bursters are keel-shaped, the cerci not jointed, but with a conspicuous node at middle of outer surface; sclerites dark brown.—See p. 17 (note 18).

51(52). Basal joint of the outer lobe simple, apical joint subtruncate, the two joints subequal. Adnasalia obtuse, nasale forming a short and more or less broadly truncate or emarginate prominence. 22. Masoreini.

52(51). Basal joint of the outer lobe with a conspicuous process at outer side of apex (fig. 53), apical joint pointed, much shorter than the basal joint. The last two joints of the maxillary palpi longer than wide, but small, shorter together than the first joint. Adnasalia strongly projecting and pointed towards sides, nasale forming a rather long subtriangular prominence with bifid apex. Cerci very slightly longer than mandibles, soft, not distinctly jointed (ex Gardner)

23. *Tetragonoderini (genus Tetragonoderus Dejean).

53(50). Claws very unequal, slender. Penicillus of mandible absent, base of cutting edge of mandible obliquely truncate, the mandible thus narrowed to base, retinaculum almost absent, indicated only by a slight angular dilatation of the cutting edge at the anterior end of the truncature (fig. 22). Head-capsule longer than wide, neck strongly constricted, not much more than half as wide as head. Third antennal joint with large, oblong dorsal and ventral sensorium, which are more than half as long as the joint, but without apical appendage (fig. 22, sn). Terminal joints of palpi and especially outer lobe long and pointed. Tarsi long, with six longitudinal rows of short hairs. Cerci 11-segmented (fig. 83). Adnasalia produced, rounded exteriorly and pointed inward at apex, nasale with two rather strong teeth, two small teeth between each adnasale (fig. 22, ad) and paramedian tooth 24. Zuphiini?

54(49). First antennal joint shorter, usually very much shorter than third joint (figs. 13, 14), very seldom the first joint subequal or longer, but then the head with a cervical groove and carina before base (fig. 19), or the frons reaching hind margin of head. Claws of normal length, or small, often toothed or a pulvillus present below the base of the claws. Tenth abdominal segment usually with a pair of protrusible anal tubes which bear each a row of hooks (figs. 81, 86, 88) . 25. Lebiini.

55(48). Cutting edge of mandibles serrate between retinaculum and apex. Head with a distinct though rather broad neck, which is either considerably narrower than the head or defined anteriorly by a cervical groove and keel. Cerci slender and long, with 4-5 joints, including the fixed basal part. Two equal, simple claws 26. Colliurini.

57(46). One claw, which is not toothed though somewhat obtusely dilated at base, where a minute setula arises. Mandibles with a very strong retinaculum close to apex and directed forward and inward, so that the apex almost appears to be bifid, penicillus present (fig. 18). Ligula rather broad, with an additional pair of setae on sides, the apical pair more remote from each other than usually. Cerci horn-shaped, though rather slender, with a few setae and some small hairs. Appendix of third antennal joint minute, the joint hardly dilatate in apical half (fig. 18). Apical joints of outer lobe and maxillary and labial palpi small. Epicranial suture long. Sclerites (except those of head, prothorax and part of ninth tergite) pale, with a few setae and rather numerous short setulae 28. Mormolycini (genus Mormolyce Hagenbach).

58(45). Cerci absent, very short (much shorter than tenth abdominal segment) or very stout (at least as stout as tenth segment: figs. 84, 85). Claws not toothed (a dilatation of the base is not regarded as a tooth, but

only a separate dilatation some way from it).

59(62). Cerci very large and stout (figs. 84, 85). Ninth tergite divided along median line. Tooth of mandibles normal (figs. 16, 17). Maxillary palpi stout. Ligula very distinct, chitinous, the two setae inserted on dorsal surface, not at apex. As far as known, the body is always parallel-sided, very hairy, some segments are almost always reddish or yellow, the remaining segments pitchy-brown to black.

60(61). Maxillary stipes not produced at inner end, but first joint of outer lobe fused with stipes and hairy (fig. 17). Antennae 4-jointed, second and third joints separated by a suture. Tarsi with two claws. Cerci more or less blunt with a hyaline pointed rudiment of a second joint (fig. 85). 29. Helluonini.

61(60). Maxillary stipes produced at inner end into a long, lobiform, hairy process, first joint of outer lobe articulating at stipes (fig. 16). Antennae 3-jointed. Tarsi with 2 unequal claws, one of them often very small and indistinct. Cerci produced into a point at apex which is of the same colour as the cerci (fig. 84). 30. Anthiini.

62(59). Cerci short or missing, not movable. Ninth tergite entire. Tooth of mandibles small (fig. 8) or missing. Maxillary palpi normal (at least in young larvae). Ligula small or missing, without setae. Third antennal joint (fig. 8) inflated (in young larvae). No striking colora-Tarsi with 1-2 claws, in the latter case the mandibles without retinaculum and cerci absent.21 Maxillary stipes not transversely divided in apical half. 31. Brachinini.

Keys to the Genera.

1. Cychrini.

Frontal piece reaching the hind margin of head. Nasale simply rounded, without any teeth. Antennae twice as long as mandibles or longer, rather densely setose or pubescent on last three joints; second joint distinctly longer than the others. Cutting edge of mandible smooth, of retinaculum strongly denticulate. Maxillae: inner lobe a blunt chitinous cone with a seta; palpus with the first joint much shorter than the other two; third joint well developed. Labial palpi with the apical joint more or less axeshaped, with one long, band-shaped sensorium at apex. Legs with two strong equal claws. Note and tergites extremely broad, broadly overhanging the pleurae, with strongly lobate hind angles at least on the posterior segments, ninth tergite pointed at hind angles. Cerci very short, hornshaped, unarmed, not articulating at the ninth tergite, their apices separated by less or little more than the width of the tenth segment.

1 (4). Cerci well separated from ninth tergite, as long on outer as on inner side, not flattened, passing level of hind angles of ninth tergite. Ligula absent or very broadly rounded, joints of outer lobe of maxilla subequal. Ventral sclerites not fused on first to seventh abdominal segments.

2 (3). Last joint of labial palpi subcylindrical from middle to apex. Second antennal joint only slightly longer than third, first distinctly longer than fourth. Hind angles of tergites rounded, their lobes rounded,

²¹ Two claws. Mandibles with retinaculum. Cerci present, very short and broad, hump-like. Maxillary stipes transversely divided in apical half: see !Broscini, genus Cnemacanthus.

2. Carabini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture thus distinct. Nasale toothed. Antennae seldom much longer than mandibles, with few, 3-5, setae even on the last joints, almost all of them forming an apical whorl, second joint distinctly longer than the others. Cutting edge of mandible simple, of retinaculum simple or with an auxiliary tooth. Maxillae: inner lobe a blunt chitinous cone with a seta; palpus with the third joint well developed, usually longer than the others. Labial palpi with the apical joint oval to cylindrical to clavate, the apex with one or two, sometimes fused, subcircular sensoria. Legs with two strong equal claws.

1 (2). Tarsi with some spinose setulae on dorsal surface, arranged in two longitudinal rows on anterior pairs. Cerci very long, straight, without setae, and simple (fig. 72). Ninth abdominal segment membranous along median line, so that the cerci are movable. The basal two joints of the maxillary palpi much longer than wide. Retinaculum with a strong auxiliary tooth on cutting edge. Head with a semicircular blunt keel from one antenna to the other and passing through the posterior part of the frontal piece. Nasale with two, sometimes bifid, teeth which are separated from each other by a rather broad and deep emargination. Tergites rather broad, not narrower than the mesonotum, the epipleurites, however, protuberant at sides, all the tergites with lobate hind angles (fig. 72).

Ceroglossus Solier.

2 (1). Tarsi usually entirely bare on dorsal surface (except for the usual two apical spinose setulae above the claws), seldom with a few setulae, but then the basal two joints of the maxillary palpi not longer than wide. Cerci more or less curved and horn-shaped, always with spines or teeth (fig. 75) except in first-stage larvae of Calosoma.

3 (4). Epipleurites divided into a large anterior and a small posterior part (fig. 75). The basal two joints of the maxillary palpi not longer than wide. Median incision of clypeus at least as deep and wide as the one dividing the two teeth of either side (fig. 29), or the latter fused. Tergites very seldom broad, almost always without lobate hind angles on most of the segments (fig. 75) . . . Calosoma Weber. 23

¹² In quite a different way, however, from that of Nebriini.

3. Nebriini, Notiophilini.

- Frontal piece not reaching the hind margin of the head (Pelophila?). Nasale produced into a short or long horn with four to six strong teeth, and often a very small median, more ventral tooth (hypodon), or without a distinct horn but with four distinct teeth. Antennae not longer than the mandibles, with few setae on the last joints, though the first joint may be more hairy, the second joint always shorter than the first, never longer than the third and often much shorter than it. Mandibles long and sickleshaped, the cutting-edge and the retinaculum simple, basal penicillus absent. Maxillae with or without an inner lobe. Cerci articulating at hind margin of ninth tergite, leathery, slightly nodose and with setae.—The larvae of the Nebriini and Notiophilini are so closely allied that they are treated together. The only characters which would separate the two tribes are afforded by the tooth of the adnasalia in Notiophilini, and the frontal sutures which are strongly bisinuate and more or less subparallel behind level of ocelli in the Nebriini (fig. 3), whereas they are almost straight and diverging throughout in Notiophilini (fig. 4).
 - 1 (2). No distinct neck present. Tarsi slightly shorter than tibiae. Claws equal. Terminal joints of the maxillary and labial palpi slightly shorter than the first, that of the outer lobe slightly longer ²⁴ than the first. Inner lobe present. Clypeus with four teeth, of which the paramedian ones are more prominent ²⁴ than the more lateral ones (ex Johnston and Carpenter) *Pelophila Dejean.

2 (1). A very distinct and rather narrow neck present (figs. 3, 4). Tarsi distinctly and often considerably longer than tibiae, claws unequal. Terminal joint of maxillary palpi and of outer lobe much longer than the first joint, of labial palpi usually (except in *Eurynebria*) longer than the first joint.

3 (10). Maxillae with a distinct spiniform inner lobe. Horn of clypeus short or the clypeus simply with four teeth. Apical joint of the labial palpi not more than twice as long as the first joint. Frontal sutures strongly bisinuate and subparallel or slightly diverging behind level of ocelli.

5 (4). Nasale narrow, much narrower than either adnasale from incision to base of antennae, forming a distinct short horn, bearing four more

²⁴ Second joint of outer lobe shorter than first. Paramedian teeth of clypeus not

more prominent: see p. 15, par. 6.

²³ The differentiation of larvae of *Calosoma* and *Carabus* s.l. seems still uncertain in some cases. The groups like *Procerus*, *Callisthenes* etc. are regarded as subgenera by me. It is hardly necessary to include a key to them in this paper, as Lapouge's key in 1929, *Gen. Ins.* 192: 44–59 will enable them to be distinguished.

or less spine-shaped teeth (and a small hypodon), the paramedian ones longer than the outer ones, the adnasalia separated by a distinct though rounded incision. Frontal sutures more distinct, subparallel behind eyes. Second joint of labial palpi slightly to much longer than first. Terminal joint of maxillary and labial palpi and outer lobe conically pointed from middle. Colour more or less brown.

Nebria Latreille 6 (next couplet).

6 (9). Paramedian anterior setae of abdominal tergites before middle (praeand post-tergum not considered). Pronotum moderately narrowed to apex.

7 (8). Seta of adnasalia rather distant from angle, the front margin more conspicuously or only emarginate to its outer side, emarginations sometimes indistinct; in first stage the adnasalia and angles often evenly rounded with a small tubercle bearing the seta

subgenera Paranebria Jeannel and Nebria s.str.

8 (7). Seta of adnasalia at angle, which projects more or less, the front margin conspicuously emarginate to the inner side of the seta subgenus *Oreonebria* K. Daniel.

9 (6). Paramedian anterior setae of tergites behind middle. Pronotum strongly narrowed anteriorly with rather straight sides, therefore trapezoidal. Seta of adnasalia at angle, which projects more or less, the front margin conspicuously emarginate to the inner side of the seta subgenus Nebriola K. Daniel.

of the seta subgenus Nebriola K. Da 10 (3). Maxillae without an inner lobe. Horn of clypeus long (figs. 3, 4).

Apical joint of all the palpi (including outer lobe) very long and pointed, three to four times as long as the first joint. Frontal sutures distinct.

11(12). Horn of nasale very long, with six spines, not separated from adnasalia, the latter without teeth (fig. 3). Frontal sutures strongly bisinuate, subparallel for a considerable distance behind level of ocelli. Apical joint of labial palpi about thrice as long as the first . Leistus Frölich.

4. Ozaenini.

Head strongly narrowed at base though without a distinct neck-part. Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture distinct. Nasale forming a blunt prominence, above which the frons is transversely keeled. (This keel is perhaps the original anterior margin of the frons, and the blunt prominence the labrum, the clypeus forming the sloping part. Physea suggests this interpretation much less than Pachyteles?, and the latter may thus, in this respect, be the most primitive Carabid yet known.) Antennae not longer than mandibles, with few setae; first and third joints long, second and fourth very short. Cutting edge of mandibles simple or slightly dilated beyond retinaculum, the latter simple, strong, basal penicillus absent. Maxillae: inner lobe a long, pointed, slightly curved blade, with a seta on its base; outer lobe almost reaching or passing tip of palpus; joints of the latter short, the palpiger somewhat longer than any one of them. Legs with the coxae, trochanters and femora long and the tibiae and tarsi very short, claws unequal, the posterior one shorter and more outwardly (dorsally) directed. Nota distinct though not very conspicuous, tergites indistinct. Ventral and pleural sclerites of abdomen distinct, the ventral ones small.

Ninth abdominal segment transformed into a curious concave, terminal disc, composed of three pairs of sclerites, the ventral one of which is more or less deeply divided into short or long tongues. Tenth abdominal segment in a ventral emargination of the latter sclerites and more or less

enclosed by them.

(The terminal disc, the trend to shortening the apical part of the legs, the proportions of the antennal joints and the general shape of body and head are common to Ozaenini and Paussidae, which are certainly very closely related to each other. In the Paussidae, however, the frons reaches the occipital foramen, the mandible bears a prostheca, the palpiger is absent, the outer lobe of maxilla one-jointed, the inner lobe absent, several of the terminal joints of the legs (probably femur, tibia, tarsus and claws) are reduced to a simple claw-shaped appendix of the trochanter (or trochanter + femur), and the ventral plates of the terminal disc are simple.)

1 (2). Labium normal, with subparallel sides. Second joint of outer lobe more slender than basal joint, tapering to apex. Retinaculum directed inward and forward. Transverse keel of frontal piece forming its front margin, under which the median part protrudes, suggestive of a true labrum. One distinct ocellus. Cerci absent. Plates of the terminal disc very large, much exceeding the width of the eighth segment. Dorsal plates perfectly straight on inner side, touching each other in basal third, free though adjacent in the other two-thirds; lateral plates strongly transverse, pointed and not very broadly separated interiorly, widened in the two outer thirds, which are free; ventral plates touching each other on median line above anus, separated ventrally by the small tenth segment, deeply cleft into three long tongues, the most ventral one of which is simple, whereas the two others are bifurcate, thus forming five thin branches in all on either side. The most ventral branches of the two plates are broadly separated (by about the basal width of one dorsal plate). There are no spines or teeth on the terminal disc but a strong tubercle at the base of the dorsal fork of the ventral plate. Larva more slender Pachyteles Perty?

2 (1). Labium very long and prominent, narrowed from base to apex (fig. 5). Second joint of outer lobe as stout as basal joint, slightly thickened to apex, the apex broad and blunt. Retinaculum directed inward and slightly backward, the cutting edge of mandible slightly dilated distad of retinaculum. Transverse keel of frontal piece much behind the front margin of the latter, the median prominence thus appearing to be part of the frons, not reminiscent of a labrum. Cerci present as a pair of semiglobular granulose humps on the terminal disc. Plates of the terminal disc of moderate size, not much exceeding the width of the eighth segment (fig. 2), without any free inner margins. Dorsal plates straight on dorsal and ventral part of inner side, with a deep excision on middle half, in which the cerci are inserted; lateral plates longer than wide, ventral plates embracing the tenth segment, the most ventral processes almost adjacent, all five processes short and similar, the ventral plates with three tooth-shaped elevations each, one on the most dorsal process, one on the base of the second, and one on the fourth process. Larva larger and stouter, up to 19 mm. long and 4.7 mm. wide

Physea Brullé.

7. Elaphrini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head. Nasale produced into a short triangular horn, the margins of which are denticulate. Antennae not

longer than the mandibles, the first joint slightly longer than the others, with few setae, inserted outward of and above mandibles. Cutting edge and retinaculum of mandible simple, sub-basal penicillus present. Maxillae: First and second joints of maxillary palpi subequal, third much shorter and thinner. Second joint of outer lobe more or less distinctly shorter than the first. The two joints of the labial palpi subequal, the second coni-fusiform. Two equal claws. Tergites distinctly margined at sides, very hairy. Cerci fixed, leathery, with strong setiferous processes.

1 (2). Cerci with a few fairly long processes, shaped like antlers (fig. 73).

Inner lobe absent. Abdominal epipleurites entire. Head testaceous laterally. Tergites with metallic reflections. . . . Elaphrus Fabricius.

2 (1). Cerci closely beset with very numerous small but prominent setiferous tubercles, appearing spinose-hirsute (fig. 74). Inner lobe present. Epipleurites of first to seventh abdominal segments divided by a vertical pale band into an anterior and posterior half. Head and tergites brown, without metallic reflections. . . Blethisa Samouelle.

8. Scaritini.

Head-capsule rectangular, with subparallel sides, usually longer than wide. Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture distinct, usually long. Antennae not longer than mandibles, the first joint shorter than either the second or third. Mandibles long and rather slender. Maxillae with the stipes very long, the last joint of the palpi much shorter than the first and second, which are usually rather long. Tergites rectangular and almost completely covering the dorsum, the eighth not appreciably narrower than the anterior ones, the spiracles almost touching the tergites and epipleurites; nota not margined laterally; pleural and ventral sclerites of abdomen complete, the latter separated from each other by only narrow sutures. Cerci fixed, simple, more or less leathery, sometimes jointed.

1(16). Two equal or unequal claws present. Apex of third antennal joint without an appendage, but broadly truncate exteriorly, the truncature membranous with one large or several or many small flat sensoria and, at basal end, a seta (figs. 9, 51). Larvae of large size, seldom under 10 mm. in length, even in first stage. Femora and tibiae (and often even trochanters) with very strong seriate spines. Second antennal joint at least as long as and usually longer than first and never considerably shorter than third joint, usually longer. The first and second joints of maxillary palpi more or less subequal in length, rather long, the third very small, never much longer than the second is wide (fig. 9).

2 (5). Tergites strongly margined. Cerci strongly converging and rounded to apex, not tapering, and without distinct nodes. Nasale transversely trapezoidal, truncate in front, with the angles rounded. Mandibles slightly curved, cutting edge simple and bare, retinaculum small, simple. Maxillae with the inner lobe small, the third joint of the palpi very small, scarcely half as long as the second joint is

wide.

4 (3). Second joint of antennae slightly shorter than third, second joint of labial palpi gradually tapering in apical half, the apex narrowly rounded. Ventrite, postventrites and hypopleurite each with a strong seta and some small ones gen. indet. Uganda.

5 (2). Tergites not margined. Cerci not or slightly converging, but seldom

rounded to apex.

6 (9). Inner lobe strong, pointed, as long as the basal joint of the outer lobe, with the seta on middle of dorso-interior margin. Mandibles rather strongly curved, with the retinaculum extraordinarily large, blade-shaped, broader than the apex of mandible. A strong brush of setae in place of the ligula. Ventrites without setae, outer postventrites with one seta (fig. 89).

7 (8). Cutting edge distad of retinaculum with a loose fringe of short setulae. Nasale produced into a short, subtriangular horn, the apex of which is slightly prolonged and narrower than the antennae. Second and third antennal joints subequal. Inner postventrite without a seta (at least in first-stage larva). Ninth tergite divided along median line, cerci subcylindrical, almost straight, though slightly upcurved

at apex, with a few weak nodules in apical half

Storthodontus Chaudoir.

8 (7). Cutting edge of mandible and of retinaculum finely serrate. Nasale produced into a short horn with subparallel sides which is much wider than the antennae, its apex obliquely truncate on either side, and a small lateral tooth projecting sideways at a lower level than the truncature. Second antennal joint slightly longer than the third. Inner postventrites with a seta (at least in older larvae). Ninth tergite not divided, cerci with two very strong nodes, at which their three sections articulate Dyscherus Chaudoir?

9 (6). Inner lobe very small or absent. Mandibles long and slightly curved, retinaculum short (fig. 9). Inner postventrites with setae. Cerci strongly nodose, not of equal width throughout. Stipes maxillaris

and usually second joint of antennae very long

Scarites Fabricius 10 (next couplet).

10(15). Tergites pale yellow, each with four pairs of setae along hind margin (besides the setae of the hind angles), ventral arm of ocellar sulcus obsolete. Ventral sclerites each with more than two setae. Dorsal surface of head with a pair of almost straight and parallel longitudinal furrows, bordered exteriorly by a keel, which reach from the inner base of antennae towards the transverse neck-sulcus (fig. 9). Ocelli more or less vestigial or absent, especially those of the second row.

11(14). Posterior half of head not margined at sides, but with a dorso-lateral keel. Second antennal joint and sides of the last abdominal segments not abnormally setose. Third antennal joint with one large,

flat sensorium (as in fig. 9).

12(13). Second antennal joint not or hardly longer than first. Mentum triangularly excised at apex, ligula absent. Nasale very broadly and shortly produced and broadly and rather strongly emarginate all over its width. Epipleurites not divided. One large anterior and one small posterior occllus. . . . subgenus Distichus Motschulsky?

13(12). Second antennal joint much longer than first. Mentum not excised at apex, ligula distinct. Nasale transverse, trapezoidal, truncate in front, with the angles slightly receding and obtuse. Epipleurites divided into two parts. Ocelli almost absent, the front row just visible subgenus Scaritodes Putzeys.

14(11). Posterior half of head with a marginal keel at sides, which is an exten-

sion along the lateral surface of the transverse basal keel, towards a spot ventrad of the ocelli. Third antennal joint with numerous sensoria on the membranous sensorial area (see fig. 51), second joint longer than any of the others, with a row of long, erect setae on outer surface. Lateral surface of ninth and tenth abdominal segments each with a tuft of dense setae. Nasale subtriangular. Tarsi almost hidden in the terminal fringe of spines on the tibiae

subgenus Scarites pars a.

15(10). Tergites more or less brown, each with two pairs of setae along hind margin (besides setae of hind angles). Ventral arm of ocellar sulcus usually well developed. Ventral sclerites usually with only single setae (1-2 on each sclerite—1-2 pairs on ventrite—of 1st to 7th abdominal segments). Third antennal joint with several to numerous sensoria (fig. 51) subgenus Scarites pars b.

16 (1). One single strong claw. Appendage of third antennal joint present.

Larvae small, seldom reaching 10 mm. in length. Tibiae with a not very dense whorl of spinules at apex, femora without or with two ventral rows of spinules, trochanters without ventral rows. Second antennal joint much shorter than third, shorter than first. First joint of maxillary palpi much longer than second, third much

longer than the second is wide. Cerci not nodose.

17(18). Cerci of moderate length, as long as or longer than two tergites, strongly depressed, band-shaped, densely and finely hairy and with a few very fine setae (fig. 76). Terminal joints of all the palpi (incl. outer lobe) much smaller than the preceding joint. Nasale with a rather broad median emargination and two short and broad irregular paramedian lobes. Retinaculum very short and small, not much pointed, less than half as long as the mandible is wide at its insertion. Inner lobe present, with the seta rudimentary Clivina Latreille.

9. Trechini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture well developed. Cervical groove and keel absent. Nasale more or less produced in middle, almost always denticulate. Antennae not longer than the mandibles, with few setae. Mandibles rather slender, with a simple retinaculum and a penicillus. Maxillae: inner lobe absent, outer lobe with the second joint as long as the first or longer, usually much longer, palpi with the third joint subdivided into two (fig. 49). Ligula small, bisetose, second joint of the labial palpi usually subdivided into three. Legs with one strong claw, seldom with two. Abdominal sclerites incomplete, tergites not margined, pubescent between the setae, except in first stage. Cerci rigid, leathery, slender, with weak setiferous nodules on outer and dorsal surfaces, evenly rounded interiorly, more or less converging at apex.

1 (2). Tarsi with two equal claws and a pair of long, fine, band-shaped setae, inserted at their base and extending beyond their apex (fig. 36).

Mandibles inconspicuously, bluntly denticulate on cutting edge distad of retinaculum. Apical joint of the labial palpi simple (Perileptina)

Perileptus Schaum?

2 (1). Tarsi with one or seldom two claws, without a pair of long setae at the base of the claws. Mandibles simple distad of retinaculum.

3 (8). Nasale evenly and broadly rounded, very slightly projecting, front margin crenulate to bluntly denticulate. Third joint of antennae much longer than second, 1½ times to twice as long. One claw (Temnostega?).

4 (7). Terminal joint of labial palpi once divided ²⁵ or not divided but with a slight break in the outline, thus with a suggestion of a single division, defining two parts, these palpi therefore 2-3-jointed. Ocelli

absent. (Aepina.)

6 (5). Head wider than long. Terminal joint of outer lobe not longer (shorter?) than first joint. Second joint of labial palpi divided. (After Enderlein's figures).—Crozet Islands. . *Temnostega Enderlein.

7 (4). Terminal joint of labial palpi twice divided, thus forming three subsegments, the palpi therefore four-jointed (fig. 49). Ocelli distinct.

Nasale with the denticles much weaker and obliterated in middle.

Tergites not hairy, except for the usual setae (1st-stage larva!).

(ex Jeannel) (Homaloderina). *Iberotrechus Jeannel.

8 (3). Nasale more or less protruding in middle, usually a median lobe and a pair of lateral lobes or angles distinct, seldom broadly rounded as under 3 (Typhlotrechus), but then the second antennal joint as long as the third, and the subdivisions of the second labial joint very conspicuous.

9(10). Two slightly unequal claws. Nasale trilobed, the lateral lobes practically as long as the median one though narrower, front margin of

all three lobes irregularly denticulate. (Trechodina)

*Amblystogenium Enderlein.

10 (9). One claw. Nasale with the median lobe alone projecting or more so or with very short and small lobes or not lobed at all. (Trechina.)

11(12). Nasale not denticulate, with the median lobe very narrow, very strongly projecting and truncate at apex. Mandibles strongly curved, with the retinaculum very long and slender, slightly longer at its distal margin than the diameter of the mandible distad of the retinaculum. Third antennal joint with the appendix just proximad of middle, very strongly bent inward at this point

*Allegrettia Jeannel.

12(11). Nasale more or less denticulate, with the median lobe subtriangular or indistinct or absent. Mandibles less strongly curved, the retinaculum moderate, always shorter at its distal margin than the diameter of

the mandible distad of the retinaculum.

15(14). Nasale with the median lobe more or less projecting or acute, or the lateral lobes distinctly defined as a point where the front margin of the head suddenly recedes. Second antennal joint always considerably shorter than third.

²³ Enderlein describes and figures the labial palpi of *Temnostega* as three-jointed. If this should be incorrect and they were actually four-jointed, this genus could be distinguished from *Iberotrechus* by the lack of ocelli.

16(17). Mandibles short, not longer than the antennae, maxillae very long and slender, the stipes slightly passing apex of mandibles, first joint of labial palpi almost reaching apex of mandibles. No ocelli. Cerci as long as the tenth abdominal segment. Second joint of antennae . *Neaphaenops Jeannel. half as long as third . .

17(16). Mandibles long, somewhat longer, than antennae; maxillae and labial palpi of moderate length, neither the stipes nor the first joint of the

labial palpi reaching the apex of the mandible.

18(19). Nasale triangularly produced, denticulate, the lateral lobes not defined. Legs and setae very long. Cerci as long as the tenth abdominal

20(21). Median lobe of nasale very small, not or not much projecting beyond lateral lobes. Ocelli absent. No neck-constriction. Cerci and 10th abdominal segment of almost equal length . . *Anophthalmus Sturm.

21(20). Median lobe of nasale more projecting beyond lateral lobes.

22(23). Nasale tuberculate on dorsal surface of apex . *Trechopsis Peyerimhoff.

23(22). Nasale denticulate only at border.

24(27). Nasale more produced, subtriangular, with the lateral lobes slightly emphasised and the front margin coarsely denticulate, especially towards sides. No ocelli. Retinaculum very convex distad, more or less humped.

25(26). Neck slightly constricted. The three setulae on vertex on either side

of the epicranial suture arranged in an angle of about 150°

*Neotrechus J. Müller.

26(25). Neck not constricted. The three setulae on vertex on either side of the epicranial suture arranged in an angle of about 120° (fig. 49) Speotrechus Jeannel.

27(24). Nasale less produced, more trapezoidal, with the lateral lobes usually more strongly emphasised and the front margin finely denticulate.

28(29). Nasale with the lateral lobes forming an acute angle (though with rounded apex), the base of the strong concavity between the median . . . *Epaphius Stephens. and lateral lobes level with the adnasalia

29(28). Nasale with the lateral lobes forming an obtuse or right angle (with rounded apex), the base of the shallow concavity between the median and lateral lobes considerably anterior to level of adnasalia Trechus Schellenberg and *Duvalius Delarouzée.

(No reliable characters distinguishing these two large genera are known. Species with distinct ocelli and well-pigmented tergites may generally be regarded as Trechus, whereas in Duvalius usually the mouth-parts and legs are more slender.)

10. Bembidiini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head. Cervical keel absent. Nasale somewhat produced and denticulate. Antennae not longer than the mandibles, with few setae. Mandibles rather slender, with a simple retinaculum and a penicillus. Maxillae: inner lobe absent, outer lobe with the joints subequal, or, more commonly, the second joint much longer, palpi with the joints elongate, not subdivided. Ligula small, bisetose, both joints of the labial palpi long, the apical ones very slender, not subdivided. Legs with one strong claw. Abdominal sclerites incomplete, tergites not margined laterally. Cerci rigid, leathery, slender, with rather weak setiferous nodules on outer and dorsal surfaces, evenly rounded interiorly, more or less converging at apex.

1 (4). The small dorsal sets of the tarsus at or slightly beyond basal third, always before middle (fig. 44). The apical joint of the outer lobe distinctly, usually much, less than twice as long as the sclerotised

part of the basal joint.

2 (3). Nasale very broadly and shortly produced and truncate (but slightly convex and denticulate in first stage, fig. 25), its lateral limit strictly angular, its front margin more than twice as long as the epicranial suture. The latter short, not quite as long as the basal joint of the The two joints of the outer lobe subequal. Head rather outer lobe. short, slightly broader than long in median line. The small dorsal seta of the tarsus at basal third (fig. 44). First stage with a few distinct spines (2-6 on either side) as egg-bursters, two of them on either side at least as long as the diameter of the largest setiferous . Asaphidion Gozis.

(fig. 24), its front margin less than twice as long as the epicranial suture, or the second joint of the outer lobe much longer than the basal joint. Epicranial suture longer than the sclerotised part of the latter or at least of the same length. First stage with about 15-20 inconspicuous, minute spinules on either side of hind part of frontal piece, the longest of them hardly half as long as the diameter

of the largest setiferous pores of the head (fig. 63). Bembidion Latreille. 4 (1). The small dorsal seta of the tarsus in, or slightly beyond, middle (fig. 38). The apical joint of the outer lobe almost or fully twice as long as the sclerotised part of the basal joint (fig. 46). Epicranial

suture shorter than the first antennal joint

Tachys Stephens 5 (next couplet)

5 (8). Cutting edge of mandibles denticulate.

6 (7). Retinaculum on basal fourth. No ocelli. (T. bistriatus Duftschmid; *subgenus Tachys s.str. ex Xambeu).

7 (6). Retinaculum at two-fifths from base. Ocelli present.

subgenus Mioptachys Bates?

8 (5). Cutting edge of mandibles smooth.

9(10). Retinaculum basad of middle. Nasale slightly projecting, the front margin of clypeus denticulate over two-thirds of its length (between the angles), the outer two or three denticles on either side rather large and almost as much projecting as median part (fig. 26). Epicranial suture distinct though short, shorter than the second antennal . subgenus Tachyta Kirby.27 joint .

10 (9). Retinaculum in middle of cutting edge. Nasale more strongly projecting.

11(12). Epicranial suture distinct, almost as long as second antennal joint. Nasale more sharply projecting, front margin truncate, reaching lateral margins in an obtuse angle, its denticles extending to close to angles (over at least two-thirds of the front margin) subgenus Tachyura Motschulsky pars (vivax, incurvus).

12(11). Epicranial suture extremely short, almost wanting. Nasale broadly rounded and denticles not extending beyond it, thus hardly half the front margin of clypeus denticulate (ex Cerruti)

subgenus *Tachyura Motschulsky pars (parvulus).

12. Broscini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head (except Cnemacanthus?). Clypeus with the median part produced and truncate (except Cnemacanthus?).

²⁶ If broadly and rather deeply emarginate, see "Bembidion sp.? or genus indet." in list of material, p. 63.

²⁷ The characters mentioned in my keys (1919 and 1921:—two claws, very short cerci,

6 ocelli) were taken from Xambeu's description and are, no doubt, quite wrong.

Antennae not longer than the mandibles, the first joint longer than the second and third. Cutting edge of mandible and retinaculum smooth. Maxillae: outer lobe with the second joint not more than two-thirds as long as the first (except Cnemacanthus?); palpi with the second joint at least two-thirds as long as the first, about twice as long as the third. Labial palpi with the second joint conspicuously shorter than the first. Legs with one strong claw (except Cnemacanthus?). Sclerites not complete. Cerci rigid, leathery, with rather strong setiferous nodes (except Cnemacanthus?).

1 (4). One claw. Maxillary stipes not transversely divided. Cerci and retinaculum well developed. Frontal piece not reaching hind

margin of head.

2 (3). Tergites not margined at sides (except anteriorly). Cerci much longer than tenth abdominal segment. Inner lobe absent. Penicillus of mandibles present, retinaculum rather strong, about two-thirds as long as the diameter of the mandible at distal end of retinaculum. Terminal joint of maxillary palpus and outer lobe hardly half as long as preceding joint, that of palpi strongly, that of the outer lobe slightly tapering to apex. Claws (fig. 39) with a pair of very conspicuous short spines on ventral surface of base (easily visible in all stages at a magnification of eight times by means of a hand-lens). Nasale simply truncate and slightly rounded or with three small teeth.

13. Patrobini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head. Cervical groove and keel present. Adnasalia not reaching level of nasale. Antennae not longer than mandibles, with few setae, the first three joints subequal, the second sometimes slightly longer. Retinaculum small, its cutting edge smooth, penicillus near base of mandible absent. Maxillae: inner lobe absent, palpi with the first joint shorter than the other two combined, the second joint distinctly or much longer and stouter than the third. Ligula small, bisetose, second joint of labial palpi shorter than the first. Legs with two strong, equal claws. Sclerites not complete, tergites margined at sides. Cerci rigid, leathery, rather long and slender, with rather strong setiferous nodes.

1 (2). Head with a pair of deep ventro-lateral furrows from ventral articulation of mandibles to the cervical groove and continuous with it.

The two joints of the outer lobe subequal, second joint of labial palpi slightly shorter than first. Adnasalia acute exteriorly, nasale rather strongly produced, slightly trilobed, well defined from adnasalia. Maxillary palpi slender, a third shorter than the stipes (ex Schiödte) *Patrobus Stephens.

2 (1). Head without deep ventro-lateral furrows, at most with a shallow depression in their place. Second joint of outer lobe distinctly shorter than first, second joint of labial palpi at most two-thirds as long as first. Adnasalia strongly obtuse, nasale slightly produced, truncate, with a small or indistinct, bluntly pointed prominence in middle. Maxillary palpi robust, about half as long as stipes.

4 (3). Neck distinctly inflated, not narrower than the head at base of antennae and not much narrower than head at widest point (on temples).

Nasale hardly produced, not defined from adnasalia, the median prominence indistinct (always?) Diplous Motschulsky.

14. Pterostichini.

Epicranial suture usually well developed, frontal piece very seldom reaching hind margin of head, and then only at a point. Cervical groove and keel present (except in Evarthrus and Feronia (Steropus) globosa Fabricius?). Antennae not, or not much, longer than mandibles, with few setae, first joint longer than second, third with a distinct appendage. Mandibles at least three times as long as wide at base, retinaculum and penicillus (Molops?) present. Maxillae: inner lobe present (except in some Drimostomina, Cratocerina? and Abacetus). Ligula small, seldom absent, the two setae always present. Legs with two strong, equal claws (except in some Abacetus). Abdominal sclerites not complete, tergites margined at sides (Coelostomus?, margin obsolete in Evarthrus). Cerci fixed, leathery, rather long and slender, with setiferous nodes, sometimes jointed or almost jointed except in basal part.

1 (8). Inner lobe vestigial (fig. 54) or absent. If two equal claws are present, the posterior row of ocelli consisting of only one (the lower) ocellus.²⁸ Ligula distinct. Epicranial suture rather long.

2 (3). Claws very unequal, or only one claw present. Six ocelli. Nodes of cerci not very strong. Nasale very slightly produced at sides, the front margin broadly emarginate and irregularly crenulate

Abacetus Dejean pars a.

3 (2). Two equal claws present. Four ocelli. Nodes of cerci rather strong.

Nasale broadly and shortly produced, truncate or slightly convex in middle. Mandibles not very slender, about thrice as long as wide, retinaculum rather short, curved inward and forward.

4 (7). Nasale defined at sides by a distinct single denticle; adnasalia with obtuse angles. Cutting edge of mandible smooth between retina-

culum and apex (Drimostomina).

6 (5). Tibiae (fig. 100) with an antero-ventral fossorial seta in addition to the apical whorl (and to the dorso-basal tactile seta). Inner edge of retinaculum smooth. Second antennal joint much longer than fourth and much longer than wide Diceromerus Chaudoir.

¹⁸ Inner lobe vestigial; two equal claws and six ocelli present; cutting edge of mandibles serrate; tergites not margined at sides; see *Leptotrachelus* (Colliurini, Ctenodactylina).

7 (4). Nasale evenly and rather strongly denticulate, without an isolated denticle marking its outer ends; angles of adnasalia bluntly pointed exteriorly. Cutting edge of mandible finely crenulate between retinaculum and apex. Tibiae only with the apical whorl of fossorial setae (and the dorso-basal tactile seta). Inner edge of retinaculum smooth. Second antennal joint not longer than fourth, hardly longer than wide (Cratocerus Deies).

both.

9(30). Seta of inner lobe apical (fig. 52, a, b), though the extreme apex of the lobe may be produced above its base into a microscopical spine. Stipes maxillaris without trace of a membranous transverse area on ventral surface, except in *Platyderus*? (Anchomenina).

10(25). Ocelli absent, indistinct, very small, or normal, but then the epicranial suture much shorter than the fourth antennal joint. Second joint of maxillary palpi much shorter than first, subequal to third. Inner lobe small to very small (except Platyderus?). Meso- and meta-

notum and tergites very pale (except in some Calathus).

11(14). Epicranial suture absent or practically absent, not or hardly (in larvae with a head-width of more than 3 mm.) longer than the diameter of the fourth antennal joint. Ocelli present, the pigmented spot small, especially in those of the second row. Retinaculum very small, up to a third as long as the mandibular diameter just beyond it. Tergites always very pale.

12(13). Epicranial suture very short but distinct. Ligula absent (but setae present). Retinaculum a quarter the length of the mandibular diameter just beyond it. Nasale truncate or slightly prominent (first-stage larva) in middle, never emarginate. Sphodrus Schellenberg.

14(11). Epicranial suture short but distinct, always longer than diameter of

fourth antennal joint.

15(16). Ocelli absent. Antennae very slender. Retinaculum strong (ex Xambeu). Larvae in caves of the Alpes Maritimes and Piedmont (perhaps occasionally in the open under deeply embedded stones)

*Sphodropsis Seidlitz.

16(15). Ocelli present (always?).

17(24). Inner lobe not or hardly longer than wide. Ligula narrow and small.

18(21). Inner lobe coniform though small. Ocelli usually small, especially those of the second row, less often normal, but then the ligula very small, tuberculiform. . . . Laemostenus Bonelli 19 (next couplet).

19(20). Ocelli very small, especially those of the second row

subgenus Antisphodrus Schaufuss and Ceuthosphodrus Jeannel.

20(19). Ocelli normal, well developed subgenus Laemostenus s.str.
21(18). Inner lobe very short, ring-shaped (fig. 47). Ocelli normal. Ligula distinct, shortly styliform.

23(22). Nasale produced into a slight point ("légèrement avancée en pointe").

Coxae at base with a large black spot. Frontal piece with a double row of punctures before hind end (ex Xambeu). *Synuchus Gyllenhal.**

spicuously shorter than the fourth antennal joint, except sometimes in first-stage larvae. Second joint of maxillary palpi at least three-fifths the length of the first (fig. 52a).

26(29). Cerci not segmented though often with an incomplete membranous ring beyond each setiferous node. Inner lobe well developed (fig.

52). Nasale without conspicuous paramedian teeth.

28(27). Nasale broadly subtruncate or somewhat convex or biconvex with a median emargination, or dentate, but always laterally defined by an acute or blunt denticle. Agonum Samouelle, *Orthotrichus Peyron.

29(26). Cerci six-segmented, basal joint fixed, the membranous rings complete, narrow and well defined. Inner lobe vestigial, tuberculiform. Nasale with four conspicuous teeth, the two paramedian ones adjacent, twice as close together as the paramedian and outer teeth of each side. Tergites very distinctly margined at sides (cf. Thyreopterus?).

30 (9). Seta of inner lobe lateral (fig. 55, see fig. 50). Stipes maxillaris with a membranous transverse area in basal half, which is almost always

distinct at least on outer part of ventral surface.

31(32). Anterior margin of clypeus slightly concave in its entire width, denticulate. Inner lobe fixed (?, ex fig.). Retinaculum directed inward and backward (ex Gardner) . . . *Abacetus Dejean pars b.

32(31). Nasale usually distinctly produced, at least its lateral limits, though often broadly emarginate. Inner lobe articulating at stipes (Pterostichina).

33(40). Antennae (fig. 56) with a small auxiliary (fifth) segment at base.³⁰
Cervical groove not sharply bent forward nor prolonged forward on ventro-lateral surface.

34(35). Cerci with about 9 long and strong primary (?) setae and, besides, with very numerous erect setae which are shorter than the primary ones but much longer than the diameter of the cerci; the latter rather stout, only slightly nodose and rather strongly curved inward,

²⁹ The first stage of *Odontonyx* (= *Olisthopus*) would fit *Synuchus* in this key owing to its larger last antennal joint, but only the normal black, comma-shaped spot is present at the outer side of the base of the coxae, and the double row of punctures before the hind end of the frontal piece is absent. These two characters, however, which Xambeu emphasises, are rather problematic, and the larva of *Synuchus* may perhaps also be traced to *Odontonyx*. It can, thus, hardly be expected that these two genera can reliably

be distinguished at present.

³⁰ This character is at the same time so unambiguous, unusual, and obviously important, that I cannot withstand the temptation to separate the whole group with accessory joint from the rest of *Feronia*, thus including *Abax*, *Molops*, *Evarthrus* and *Eumolops* in a group opposed to it. As the fifth antennal segment is present in first-stage larvae of *Abax*, it may be expected also in all three stages of the other groups. The character of the adults, corresponding with the auxiliary joint, would seem to be the absence or presence (in nearctic species) of only one pore in the third interval of the elytra, and it may, therefore, be expected that the *Hypherpes*-group will present the same larval character. In the remaining group *Feronia* with two or more punctures in the third interval a number of palearctic species occur, in which only a single pore is present. In these cases the single puncture is usually the last one, whereas in *Evarthrus* it is the second pore.

hardly tapering to apex. Mouth-parts as in Abax and Molops: mandibles very slender, retinaculum spine-shaped, directed inward and basad, inner lobe (which is longer) with a small lateral seta, second joint of maxillary palpi long and cylindrical, about thrice as long as third. Ligula broad and truncate. Nasale broadly and shortly produced, evenly emarginate over its entire width, its outer end tooth-shaped and a small similar denticle just to its inner side genus indet 3.

35(34). Cerci with only about 4-10 long setae or in addition with short, erect pubescence, which is much shorter than the diameter of the cerci.

36(37). Cerci jointed in more than apical half, the joints very well defined all round, the segments with the normal strong setae and all but the basal 1-2 minutely pubescent (fig. 99), the pubescence being most conspicuous on the last segment. Mouth-parts, especially mandibles, very slender and long. Inner lobe very short with a small lateral seta. Nasale broadly but rather strongly produced, truncate, with straight front margin and oblique sides, the latter with a tubercle or blunt tooth near middle. Ligula very short or indistinct

Abax Samouelle.

37(36). Cerci not jointed nor pubescent. Maxillary stipes rather short. 38(39). Cervical groove and keel present, but sides of head almost straight in outline. Cerci slender, several (about 5-6) times as long as the ninth tergite on median line, narrowly rounded at apex, with more numerous (c. 8) setae, at least in the second and third larval stages. Nasale broadly truncate, front margin smooth with a deep, roundedtriangular median excision, adnasalia not projecting, with a row of about six strong setae along front margin (fig. 30). Seta of inner lobe minute, not, or hardly, passing its apex (fig. 55). Stipes maxillaris robust, less than thrice as long as wide. Ligula indistinct. Antenna fig. 56. Molops Bonelli.

39(38). Cervical groove absent, neck not defined from temples. Cerci short and rather stout, not or not much longer than ninth tergite on median line, rather broadly truncate at apex, with only three setae beside the apical ones. Nasale denticulate on front margin, which is straight, without a median excision. Seta of inner lobe passing its apex. Epipleurites divided into two parts, the anterior one smaller. Tergites with vestigial side-margins (at least in full-grown Evarthrus Leconte.

40(33). Antennae four-jointed, without a small auxiliary basal joint. Nasale more or less denticulate on front margin, often emarginate in middle,

but never with a deep median excision. Cerci not jointed.

41(42). Cerci rather strongly diverging at base, strongly incurved and hardly tapering from middle to apex, the nodes very broad and flat (fig. 71). Lateral marginal ridge of the first to eighth tergites strongly though evenly dilated from fore to hind end, their inner edges conspicuously converging behind (fig. 71). Penicillus of mandible minute. Cervical groove and keel not sharply bent foward nor prolonged on ventro-lateral surface of head. Nasale broadly convex. Every tergite with a few minute setae but only one strong one on either side, the latter to the inner side of the hind end of the marginal . . Trichosternus Chaudoir. ridge .

42(41). Cerci subparallel or slightly diverging, not strongly incurved at apex, the nodes well developed (fig. 70). Lateral marginal ridge of each tergite not or only slightly dilated to hind end, the inner edges diverging or subparallel towards hind end (fig. 70). Penicillus of mandible well developed . . . Feronia Latreille 43 (next couplet). 43(44). Cervical groove not briskly bent forward nor prolonged on ventrolateral surface of head, sometimes absent. Nasale rather conspicuously projecting, with or without a median emargination

subgenus Steropus Stephens pars a.

44(43). Cervical groove briskly bent forward on ventro-lateral surface of head and more or less prolonged forward to level of ocelli or beyond.³¹

45(46). The ridge to the outer side of the strong dorsal setae of the parietalia is strongly raised in its posterior part and forms an elongate swelling (fig. 23). Retinaculum minute, not longer than the diameter of the fourth antennal joint. Nasale very broad, rather strongly produced, front margin concave over its entire width

subgenus Feronia s.str. (Poecilus Samouelle).

46(45). The ridge to the outer side of the strong dorsal seta of parietalia not forming a swelling behind. Retinaculum usually longer than diameter of fourth antennal joint, as a rule much longer.

47(48). Tergites with only one pair of strong setae in the posterior row, to the inner side of the marginal ridge. Stipes maxillaris without a membranous area near base of ventral surface. Retinaculum half as long as mandibular diameter just beyond it. Nasale truncate, slightly narrower than adnasale, somewhat produced

subgenus Pseudorthomus Chaudoir?

48(47). Tergites with 2-3 pairs of more or less strong setae in the posterior row. Stipes maxillaris with a membranous area near base of ventral surface (see fig. 23), except sometimes in first stage.

49(52). The outer limits of the nasale (defined by the outer ones of the four spinules above front margin) strongly projecting, the nasale either truncate or broadly emarginate between them. Retinaculum rather short, considerably shorter than the diameter of the mandible just beyond it.

50(51). Nasale emarginate over its entire width, the outer limits rounded, the adnasalia concave

subgenera Omaseus Stephens, Parargutor Casey, Refonia Casey.

51(50). Nasale truncate over its entire width, sometimes very shallowly emarginate in middle, the outer limits angular or tooth-shaped. subgenera Bothriopterus Chaudoir, Argutor Stephens, Pseudomaseus Chaudoir,

Euferonia Casey, ? Lyperosomus Motschulsky.

52(49). The outer limits of the nasale not or very slightly emphasised, or the nasale projecting beyond them. Retinaculum often very long, always rather slender.

53(56). Nasale wider than each adnasale, at most moderately projecting.

54(55). Nasale not projecting beyond its lateral limits

subgenera Pterostichus Stephens (multipunctatus), Steropus Stephens (aethiops),

Dysidius Chaudoir.

55(54). Nasale distinctly projecting beyond its lateral limits

subgenus Pterostichus Stephens (melas, cristatus?).

56(53). Nasale not wider than each adnasale, strongly projecting

subgenus Abacidus Leconte.

16. Amarini.

Nasale with 4-6 small, subequal teeth which are never separated by more than their own width, rest of nasale denticulate, adnasalia not or slightly produced. Antennae not much longer than mandibles, with few setae.

³¹ The following key to the subgenera of *Feronia* must necessarily remain very tentative, as only a few of the numerous subgenera are available and, even of those, mostly only a single reliably identified species. No attempt has, therefore, been made to separate the representatives at hand of every single group.

Mandibles robust, not more than twice as long as wide, with a small retinaculum and a penicillus. Maxillae with the stipes divided transversely near middle by a membranous zone, the apical part with a longitudinal, comblike row of strong, inwardly directed setae on dorsum; inner lobe present, with a lateral seta. Ligula well developed, with two setae. Tarsi with two subequal claws. Tergites not margined laterally. Cerci fixed, with some setiferous nodules, very short to moderately long.

Amara Samouelle.

1 (8). Ninth ventrite without a pair of setae at middle of its length.

2 (3). Nasale with four somewhat stronger teeth, which are distant from each other by approximately their own width. Cervical groove absent, but sometimes indicated by a distinct angular bend in the outline of the temples, which is caused by a rudimentary ridge. Cerci shorter than the ninth tergite and the tenth abdominal segment (at least in full-grown larvae). Head very broad, almost twice as broad as the frontal piece is long. Epicranial suture short, but very distinct subgenus Percosia Zimmermann.

3 (2). Nasale with (5-)6 very small and closely set teeth (fig. 10), seldom (Celia quenseli) as in Percosia, but the cerci always longer than

the ninth tergite.

4 (7). Epicranial suture very distinct, cervical groove present. Egg-bursters

of first-stage larva keel-shaped.

5 (6). Cervical groove present only on lateral part of dorsum, just reaching the sides of head, but not cutting through its outline, more strongly curved forward at sides. Epicranial suture long, at least as long as fourth antennal joint. Head rather strongly rounded-narrowed near base. Larger species . . . subgenus Cyrtonotus Stephens.

6 (5). Cervical groove extending well on to lateral surface of head, both groove and keel cutting the outline. Epicranial suture shorter

subgenus Amara s.str.

7 (4). Epicranial suture absent or practically absent (see fig. 10). Egg-bursters of first-stage larva spine-shaped (see fig. 67). Cervical groove present or absent, perhaps sometimes (quenseli?) replaced by a distinct angular bend in the outline of the temples and a slight impression in front of it subgenus Celia Zimmermann.

8 (1). Ninth ventrite with one or several pairs of setae, at middle of its length, which are longer than the paramedian pair of small setae of the posterior row. Head without a cervical groove and keel (fig. 10). Epicranial suture absent. Head much wider than long. Nasale with (5-)6 small, closely set teeth. Egg-bursters of first stage spine-shaped (fig. 67) subgenus Bradytus Stephens.

17. Orthogoniini.

Frontal piece broadly reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture absent. Head narrowed to base, but without a cervical groove or keel. Ocelli absent. Nasale with some rounded teeth. Antennae slightly longer than mandibles, not pubescent but rather richly setose, especially on inner surface of the first and second joints, the basal joint the longest. Mandibles stout, less than twice as long as wide, cutting edge with 1-2 blunt teeth besides the retinaculum; penicillus absent. Maxillae with the stipes stout, not divided, inner lobe present, seta apical, palpiger and basal joint of outer lobe longer than the following joints. Ligula rather long, labial palpi stout, second joint tapering to apex. Legs with a single short claw, which may be bifid, with the points unequal, or provided with an obtuse-

angular dilatation at base. Tergites very small and broadly divided on median line, at least in older larvae which are physogastric, tenth segment very short and stout. Cerci absent. Termitophilous larvae, first stage unknown.

1 (2). Second joint of maxillary palpi practically as long as first, both together as long as palpiger. Second joint of labial palpi large, not much smaller than first, broadly rounded at apex . . . *Glyptus Brullé.

18. Harpalini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture well developed. Head with a cervical groove and keel (Amblystomus?). Six ocelli present. Antennae not or slightly longer than mandibles, basal joint the longest, but third sometimes almost as long. Mandibles more or less stout, usually less than two-and-a-half times as long as wide, sometimes prolonged between retinaculum and apex, the former then rather close to base and the middle part hardly curved and with several blunt teeth on cutting edge; penicillus and retinaculum present, often 1-5 blunt teeth beyond the latter. Maxillae with the stipes moderately long, inner lobe present; outer lobe and palpus slender; first joint of palpi longer (usually much) than palpiger and second and third joints. Legs with two free, unequal claws. Tergites well developed, though often rather pale; incomplete and not margined at sides; tenth segment more or less slender, abdomen not physogastric. Cerci present.

1 (2). Front margin of clypeus semicircularly excised over the entire width between the angles, margin of excision jagged. Cervical groove and keel "not apparent." Seta of inner lobe apical. Retinaculum slender and long, at basal third, directed slightly backward. (ex Gardner) (Amblystomina) *Amblystomus Erichson.

2 (1). If the front margin of clypeus is semicircularly excised, this excision is defined by a pair of teeth (fig. 32) but not by the lateral angles, which are well defined, the excision thus not taking up the entire width. Cervical groove and keel distinct (figs. 11, 12). Seta of inner lobe (fig. 50) lateral (or, seldom, absent).

3(16). All the tergites behind front margin with a complete transverse keel (see figs. 70, 71), defining praetergum from tergum, and dorsal surface of first joint of labial palpi bare. Head of moderate size. Cerci much longer than the ninth abdominal tergite and conspicuously longer than the tenth segment, the latter with only six pairs of setae, arranged in two oblique rings, sometimes one or a few additional pairs of small setulae present.

4 (5). Cutting edges of mandible and retinaculum serrate. Nasale slightly protruding, with eight narrow but rather long teeth, the two paramedian ones somewhat more projecting. Posterior row of setae on tergites consisting of two pairs of strong setae. Ventral surface of femora with one pair of rows of short setae . Dicheirotrichus Jacquelin.

5 (4). Cutting edges of mandibles and retinaculum smooth. Nasale differently shaped.

6 (7). Inner lobe fused on ventral surface with stipes, rather broad and triangular (fig. 11). The furrow, surrounding the ocelli, not prolonged backward on dorso-lateral surface of head. Retinaculum rather small (about a third as long as the mandibular diameter

distad of it). Ligula rather broadly truncate and emarginate, its setae rather broadly separated. Nasale with the larger central portion truncate and minutely dentate, and two stronger teeth on either side of it. Nota each with two pairs of setae in the posterior row. Trochanters and femora with one row of spinules each on antero-ventral and postero-ventral surfaces

Anisotarsus Chaudoir.

7 (6). Inner lobe not fused with the sclerotisation of the stipes, styliform (fig. 12). Retinaculum quite strong (at least one-half as long as the mandibular diameter distad of it).

8(13). The furrow, surrounding the ocelli, prolonged backward on dorsolateral surface of head as a conspicuous groove (fig. 12). Nasale with 4-9 stronger teeth, the margin of which may be crenulate,

distinctly projecting.

9(10). Inner lobe without a seta (normal?). Ligula with a short, sclerotised, bidentate process that bears the setae. Femora with two rows of spinules each on antero-ventral and postero-ventral surfaces. Nasale shortly projecting, rounded, with five subequal teeth. Prolongation of ocellar furrow not very long nor very deep

Trichopselaphus Chaudoir?

10 (9). Inner lobe with a seta. Ligula simple. Prolongation of ocellar furrow

very long and sharply defined.

12(11). Nasale with a median rounded excision and, on either side, two broad, truncate teeth with crenulate front margins (fig. 12). Insertions of ligular setae not contiguous, rather broadly separated, very narrowly sclerotised. Trochanters and femora with one row of spinules each on antero-ventral and postero-ventral surfaces, the femora with one additional pair of spinules near middle, which are less distant from each other. Nota each with a single pair of setae in the posterior row, level with the lateral margins of the (abdominal) tergites. Lateral part of mentum densely and finely granulose . Amphasia Newman.

13 (8) The furrow, surrounding the ocelli, not prolonged backward on dorsolateral surface of head, or indistinct. Nasale with more or less

numerous small teeth.

14(15). Tergites with two pairs of strong (and a few small) setae in the posterior row. Nasale with ten stronger and numerous fine teeth, eight stronger teeth lying in the upper row, and separated on the median line by a somewhat broader gap, in which the two strongest teeth of the lower row are visible (ex Kemner) . . *Trichocellus Ganglbauer.

16 (3). The posterior tergites (usually all but the anterior two or three), especially the fifth to eighth, without a transverse keel defining praetergum (figs. 77, 78), though sometimes a suffused darker transverse

line may be present, which, however, does not show in profile; seldom with a very fine keel, but then the dorsal surface of basal joint of labial palpi with one or several setae in apical half.

17(30). Ligula subquadrate, broadly truncate at apex, the bases of the setae rather widely separated (fig. 60). Nasale with 1-2 large teeth or denticulate, but then not evenly rounded or the denticles larger exteriorly.

18(19). Mandible strongly prolonged distad to the retinaculum, saw-shaped, with five blunt teeth (fig. 58). The furrow, surrounding the ocelli, not prolonged backward on dorso-lateral surface of head (see fig. 11). Stipes maxillaris and labial palpi very slender. Sclerites dark brown, apical parts of legs and of cerci whitish. Clypeus broadly and shallowly emarginate between the lateral angles, front margin pale, with very minute denticles. Tenth abdominal segment with only five pairs of setae (first stage only?) . . . Barysomus Dejean?

19(18). Mandible not or slightly prolonged (fig. 59), without or with only 1-3 blunt teeth distad of the retinaculum. The furrow, surrounding the ocelli, usually conspicuously prolonged backward on dorso-lateral surface of head (see fig. 12), always very sharply defined, if mandibles with several teeth. Nasale more conspicuously denticulate or dentate.

- 20(23). The seta of the cerci, preceding the apical two strong setae, is not or only slightly more distant from the latter than these from each other and is inserted on the dorso-interior surface (fig. 77); cerci shorter than the tenth abdominal segment, widely separated at base. Dorsal surface of basal joint of labial palpi with strong erect setae over its entire length. The combined second and third joints of the maxillary palpi shorter than the first. Mandibles without a tooth beyond retinaculum. Trochanters and femora with two to three rows of strong spinules each on antero-ventral and postero-ventral surfaces.
- 21(22). Apical group of cerci consisting of three setae (minute setulae disregarded), the next (dorso-exterior) seta being almost twice as distant from the dorso-interior one as this from the subapical one. Cerci slenderer, half as long as tenth abdominal segment, not longer than the ninth tergite; tenth segment with numerous, irregularly arranged setae all round. Tergites with a very fine transverse keel, separating practerga from terga. Nasale very wide and broadly rounded or truncate with a median emargination, hardly produced, the outer end with 1-2 small teeth. The combined second and third joints of maxillary palpi hardly one-half as long as first.

 Euryderus Leconte.

less broadly separated at base, gradually incurved, and usually not, or not much more, distant from each other at apex than at base. First joint of labial palpi seldom with any setae in basal half, but usually with 1-3 towards apex . Harpalus Latreille 24 (next couplet).

24(25). Nasale with two very large teeth, which pass the level of the adnasalia, and which are separated by a more or less semicircular excision which is usually much broader than one tooth, the excision at most minutely denticulate, the outer surface of the teeth often more strongly dentate (fig. 32). Cutting edge of mandibles simple beyond subgenus Ophonus Stephens.

the retinaculum (figs. 59, 50, 60). . . . subgenus Ophonus Steph 25(24). Nasale with smaller teeth; if two of these are rather large, they do

not pass the level of the adnasalia.

26(29). Head with the sides strongly converging to base and rather straight. Cutting edge of mandibles with 2-3 blunt teeth beyond the retinaculum. Mandibles rather straight interiorly in the dentate part. Nasale minutely denticulate, much behind level of lateral angles, forming a broad excision between the latter with the base almost straight. Postocular longitudinal groove defined by a keel on outer

27(28). Nasale with about two much larger though still small denticles on

either side of the denticulate part. (Fig. 78)

subgenus Pseudophonus Motschulsky.

28(27). Nasale minutely denticulate, even exteriorly . subgenus *Pardileus* Gozis. 29(26). Sides of head less strongly converging to base, head less broad. Cutting edge of mandibles without or with one tooth beyond the retinaculum, very seldom with two teeth; mandibles more regularly curved in apical part, more robust. Nasale often more or less produced, sometimes denticulate, but the denticles then larger

subgenus Harpalus s.lat.

30(17). Ligula small, shortly styliform and obtusely conical, narrowly truncate or bidentate, with the bases of the setae subcontiguous (fig. 61). The furrow, surrounding the ocelli, not prolonged backward (see fig. 11). Cutting edge of mandibles not toothed beyond the retinaculum, the latter almost at middle. Basal joint of labial palpi without setae.

31(32). Second joint of outer lobe less than half as long as first. abdominal segment with rather numerous setulae. Median tooth of clypeus rounded in middle, with the edge denticulate in very fresh specimens, and with two small denticles on either side, two somewhat stronger denticles to their exterior side (the whole median part being very similar to that of Harpalus aeneus L.). Head-capsule narrowed to base, conspicuously wider than long (all in). Third joint of maxillary palpi very small, slightly shorter than the second joint and less than twice as long as wide; second joint of outer lobe up to about half as long as first joint. Fourth antennal joint shorter than second Agonoderus Dejean.

32(31). Second joint of outer lobe at least half as long as first. Tenth abdominal segment with six pairs of setae and 1-2 pairs of setulae.

33(34). Nasale with a pair of irregularly shaped, crenulated paramedian teeth, which are separated by a few sharp denticles; exteriorly the median part of the clypeus is irregularly crenulate-denticulate with a stronger denticle at a somewhat higher level about half-way between middle and anguli frontales. Second joint of maxillary palpi much longer than wide, as long as third. Second joint of outer lobe distinctly shorter than first. Seta of inner lobe very close to its base. antennal joint at least as long as sclerotised part of second

Bradycellus Erichson.

34(33). Nasale without strong paramedian teeth, either rather evenly denti-

culate, or with a strong median tooth.

19. Chlaeniini.

Head without a neck-constriction or a cervical groove and keel before base, though the head is somewhat narrowed to base and is provided with a lateral impression behind the temples. Epicranial suture absent or short. Nasale with several acute or blunt teeth. Antennae not much (up to a third) longer than mandibles, with a few setae or pubescent. Mandibles rather slender, not much less than three times as long as wide at base or longer, penicillus present. Maxillae: stipes rather slender, inner lobe strong, with an apical seta, second joint of outer lobe shorter than first. Ligula distinct, with two setae, second joint of labial palpi not very slender, often subdivided at apex. Legs with two equal, simple claws. Tergites margined laterally, complete, usually partly hiding the abdominal spiracles in dorsal view. Cerci either fixed and with a few nodules, each of which bears a seta, or fixed or movable and, in second and third stages, without nodules and with numerous small hairs, often irregularly annulate.

(The larvae of only a few genera of this tribe are known, but their generic distinction is, neverthelesss, apparently difficult, and it is doubtful whether the characters in the first and last paragraphs really separate the Chlaeniina and Oodina in a reliable way. Some of the unidentified material has, therefore, been disregarded.)

1 (8). Tergites pubescent (fig. 79). Retinaculum more or less conspicuously basad of middle, recurved, the longitudinal axis pointing towards base and interior side. Larva usually bicolorous, the head being more or less yellow, the dorsal sclerites black. (Chlaeniina.)

6 (7). First antennal joint distinctly shorter than second, antennae very slender, the joints subcylindrical. Retinaculum well developed.

Maxillary stipes entire. Ligula longer than wide, labial palpi with one auxiliary apical jointlet (ex Gardner) . *Callistomimus Chaudoir.

7 (6). First antennal joint distinctly longer than second, the three basal joints short, distinctly thickened apically. Retinaculum represented only by a slight swelling. Maxillary stipes subdivided across middle. Ligula large, as wide as long, labial palpi with two auxiliary apical jointlets (ex Gardner) *Rhopalogalous Laferté

jointlets (ex Gardner) *Rhopalopalpus Laferté. 8 (1). Tergites bare, except for two transverse rows of a few short setae (two pairs in the posterior row). Retinaculum almost in middle of cutting edge, directed inward. Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture distinct though short. Tergites very broad and complete. Cerci fixed, with a few setiferous nodules. Second joint of maxillary palpi longer than first, third very small. Nasale with three small though strongly projecting teeth and a few denticles laterad of them Oodes Samouelle.

20. Licinini.

Frontal piece almost always reaching the hind margin of the head, epicranial suture absent or very short. Clypeus with the nasale unarmed and not reaching level of the adnasalia, not well defined from the latter, with a membranous seam (Dilonchus? Badister?) or entirely membranous. Antennae much longer than mandibles, usually twice or more than twice as long, with the normal small number of setae, not hairy, second joint subequal to first or longer. Cutting edge of mandible strongly though finely serrate (except in Rembus), retinaculum usually serrate interiorly, the serrations spiniform; penicillus present. Maxillae: inner lobe strong, with a seta: second joint of outer lobe subequal to or shorter than first, first and second joints of palpi subequal or the second shorter. Labial palpi stout, the second joint subconical, ligula with two setae. Legs with two strong subequal, simple claws. Tergites more or less complete at sides. Cerci rather long, with strong setiferous nodes or pubescent, fixed or (Dilonchus) articulating at ninth tergite. Anal crotchets absent.

2 (1). Cutting edge of mandibles always finely serrate. Antennae at least twice as long as mandibles.

3 (8). Cerci fixed, strongly diverging at base. Retinaculum strongly serrate interiorly.

4 (7). Ligula indistinct, setae strong, slightly separated at base. Adnasalia rounded exteriorly. Tergites margined at sides. Epipleurites more or less strongly projecting at their posterior end. Terminal joints of maxillary palpi and outer lobe more or less distinctly shorter than preceding joint. Larvae of moderate to large size.

5 (6). Apical two joints of antennae pubescent, second joint several times as long as the first, not shorter than the mandibles, the following two joints each of almost the same length. Cerci with numerous fine

asperities which bear minute setulae or spinules. Seta of inner lobe inserted laterally. Third joint of maxillary palpi minute, semiglobular, half as long as diameter of second, second joint of outer lobe much shorter than first. Frontal piece enclosed by epicranial halves behind, not quite reaching hind margin of head, a very short epicranial suture present. Epipleurites protruding sideways but not produced backward, without glandular orifices

Dicaelus Bonelli.

6 (5). All the antennal joints with a small number of setae, not pubescent, second joint not much longer than first, only the third joint approximately as long as mandible. Cerci with a few setiferous nodes, otherwise bare and smooth. Seta of inner lobe inserted at apex. Third joint of maxillary palpi small, conical, as long as the diameter of the second joint, second joint of outer lobe slightly shorter than the first. Frontal piece broadly separating the epicranial halves behind, reaching hind margin of head in its full posterior width, epicranial suture entirely absent. Epipleurites protruding sideways and often produced backward, with a complicated glandular orifice near anterior end, the thoracic segments each with two pairs of glandular orifices in the pleural region, one in front and one behind Licinus Latreille.

21. Panagaeini.

Epicranial suture absent or short, nasale entirely sclerotised (i.e. without a membranous seam and fringe), simply rounded (except in Tefflus), adnasalia receding or slightly produced (except in Tefflus). Antennae more than twice as long as mandibles, at least the apical two joints pubescent, third joint very slightly dilated, with the appendix at or almost at apex, all the segments long and slender. Mandibles with the cutting edge serrate (except in Tefflus), that of the retinaculum smooth, the latter very large, penicillus present (except in Craspedophorus). Maxillae: stipes more or less broad, inner lobe strong, third joint of maxillary palpi very much smaller than the preceding two. Ligula with two strong setae, the labial palpi very stout, about twice as wide as the maxillary ones. Tergites black, incomplete at sides, and not covering lateral parts of dorsum (except Tefflus), margined at sides, tenth segment without crotchets. Cerci articulating at ninth tergite (except in Tefflus), very long and slender, pubescent or with a few or many very short setae.

1 (6). Cerci movable, articulating at ninth tergite (fig. 80). Antennae fourjointed. Clypeus gently rounded in middle, without any teeth, the
adnasalia often not set off from nasale, and never strongly set off
(fig. 20). Frontal piece not quite reaching hind margin of head, a
short epicranial suture present. Cutting edge of mandibles serrate
between retinaculum and apex. Inner lobe inserted on apical end
of inner margin of the stipes (except in Craspedophorus), normal,
conical, with a strong apical seta. Third joint of maxillary palpi
small, but well developed, never much shorter than the diameter of
the second joint. Ligula small but distinct, second joint of labial
palpi more or less narrowed to apex. Tergites incomplete (Panagaeini s.str.).

2 (5). Second joint of outer lobe shorter than first joint and not markedly darker than it. Second joint of maxillary palpi not markedly darker than the first. Second joint of labial palpi narrowed to apex, its sensorial area subcircular (*Trichisia*?). Cerci densely pubescent.

3 (4). Fourth antennal segment distinctly shorter than third. Ventral surface of mentum with two pairs of strong setae (one of them close to base). Adnasalia slightly receding, not reaching level of nasale, which is very broadly rounded. Cerci very distinctly tapering from base to apex, unicolorous (ex Gardner) . . . *Trichisia Motschulsky.

5 (2). Second joint of outer lobe as long as or longer than first joint, and much darker than it, subconiform (fig. 20). Second joint of maxillary palpi much darker than first. Second joint of labial palpi moderately narrowed and strongly compressed in dorso-ventral direction at apex, the sensorial area elongate-bean-shaped. Cerci pubescent or with a few very short setae (fig. 80). Fourth antennal joint at least as long as third (always?). Ventral surface of mentum with only one pair of strong setae (near apex) Craspedophorus Hope.

6 (1). Cerci fixed (fig. 82). Antennae with a short supplementary (fifth) joint at base (fig. 21). Clypeus more strongly projecting in middle and at sides, the nasale toothed and adnasalia denticulate at inner margin, conspicuously set off from nasale. Frontal piece reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture entirely absent. Cutting edge of mandibles smooth. Inner lobe inserted on inner end of apical margin of stipes, broad and flattened at base, the outer edge concave, the apex pointed, the seta on inner side, small. Third joint of maxillary palpi very small, semiglobular, hardly half as long as the diameter of the second joint. Ligula indistinct (but its setae well developed), second joint of labial palpi very strongly dilated to apex, very strongly axe-shaped, the sensorial area band-shaped. Tergites more or less covering lateral parts of dorsum, at least in second and third stages, produced at each side into a raised, pointed, backwardly directed, short process (fig. 82) Tefflus Latreille.

³² Schiödte describes and figures a minute lateral spine. The material at hand shows, however, that in reality the long chitinous point in his drawing is the sets. The apex of the inner lobe is somewhat obliquely truncate in the larvae of the genuine Panagaeini, and the distal (dorsal) part of the truncature is microscopically produced, though perhaps not into quite as long and thin a point as seen by Schiödte.

22. Masoreini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture distinct; cervical groove and keel absent. Nasale slightly produced, truncate or broadly emarginate, angles of adnasalia obtuse. Antennae not longer than mandibles, the first joint as long as third, second short, with few setae. Cutting edge of mandibles simple, retinaculum small or moderate, simple; penicillus present. Maxillae: inner lobe absent, outer lobe with the joints simple, subequal, the second subtruncate, palpi with the first joint as long as the other two together, second only half as long as third. Labial palpi with the apical joint very slender, subcylindrical, ligula small, with two closely placed setae. Head with six well-developed ocelli, without a cervical groove or carina before base. Legs with two equal, simple claws, without pulvillus. Tergites not margined at sides, more or less pale. Cerci slender and very slightly sclerotised.

1 (2). Cerci jointed, twice as long as tenth segment. Nasale truncate, about half as wide as one adnasale. The joints of the labial palpi subequal in length. Retinaculum moderate. Claws slender and nearly straight (fig. 35)Anaulacus McLeay.

2 (1). Cerci not jointed, not projecting beyond tenth segment. Nasale broadly emarginate, as wide as one adnasale. The basal joint of the labial palpi nearly twice as long as the second joint. Retinaculum very small (ex Gardner). Claws normal (Gardner in litt.)

Masoreus Dejean.

25. Lebiini.

Antennae not, or not much, longer than mandibles, with few setae, first joint conspicuously shorter than third (except Coptodera and gen. indet.). Mandibles with the cutting edge and retinaculum smooth, the latter often very small or absent, the former very minutely and indistinctly serrulate in Oecornis, penicillus always present (minute in Coptodera, Cymindoidea?). Maxillae without an inner lobe, third joint of maxillary palpi and second of labial palpi not subdivided. Legs with two claws. Tergites incomplete (except Arsincë), as a rule not margined at sides. Cerci absent or short or jointed, seldom with more than seven joints (in this case the head with a cervical groove and keel), seldom unjointed, leathery and with setiferous nodules.

1(30). Claws not toothed in middle (in *Plochionus* and *Catascopus*? a basal tooth is present). If the retinaculum is well developed (projecting by a third or more of the width of mandible just distad of retinaculum), the cervical groove and keel are present (fig. 19), or the first antennal joint is longer than the third. If the cerci are not jointed, either the head with a cervical groove or the retinaculum very small to absent.

2(21). Tarsus without a pulvillus and without or with a basal tooth; in the

latter case the head with a cervical groove.

3(14). Retinaculum (fig. 19) very distinct or even strong, penicillus present (Coptodera?). Cervical groove and keel present, except sometimes if the first antennal joint is longer than the third. Maxillary stipes rather slender, almost or fully thrice as long as wide, outer lobe with the two joints subequal in length (Coptoderina).

4 (7). Epicranial suture absent, frontal piece reaching hind margin of head. First antennal joint the longest. Ligula indistinct (but its setae well developed). Anal segment without crotchets. Claws subequal.

simple. Tergites not margined at sides.

5 (6). Cervical groove and keel absent. Retinaculum strong. Apical joint of labial palpi small, hardly one-half as long or as wide as basal joint, conical. Nasale narrowly produced with subparallel sides, the apex excised, thus bidentate. Cerci 8-9-segmented, the first and third joints widened exteriorly at apex and with half a whorl of long setae along outer side of apex, the second with several setae on dorsal surface of apex, the other joints with the normal setae

gen. indet. 4.

6 (5). Cervical groove and keel present. Retinaculum small, but very distinct. Apical joint of labial palpi rather stout, two-thirds as long as basal joint. Nasale almost straight, not markedly projecting. Cerci four-jointed, the articulations not quite complete, except between the last joints. Tergites partly black . . Coptodera Dejean.

7 (4). Epicranial suture distinct, frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, nasale dentate or markedly projecting (fig. 19). Third antennal joint the longest (though only slightly longer than first in *Thyreopterus*? and *Catascopus*?). Ligula (and its setae) very distinct, apical joint of labial palpi slender and subcylindrical. Retinaculum more or less strong.

8 (9). Nasale only slightly projecting, dentate (two closely adjacent teeth in middle and two others farther apart form the paramedian ones, the margin denticulate between the teeth of each side). Anal segment without crotchets. Second joint of maxillary and labial palpi not much shorter than first, third of maxillary palpi not much shorter than second. Claws simple and subequal. Retinaculum long and slender. Cerci six-jointed. Tergites margined at sides. Sclerites brown, ninth abdominal segment and apical part of cerci whitish

9 (8). Nasale markedly projecting, truncate to slightly bidentate, the outer margin sometimes with a few denticles (fig. 19). Anal segment with strong crotchets on protrusible anal tubes (fig. 86). Second and third joints of maxillary palpi combined not much longer or even shorter than first, second joint of labial palpi not much more than half as long as first joint. Retinaculum shorter and stouter.

10(11). Cerci unjointed. Claws very unequal. Adnasalia somewhat produced and truncate at sides. Second and third joints of maxillary palpi combined subequal to first, second joint of labial palpi slightly more than half as long as first. Tergites not margined at sides. Head reddish, nota testaceous, tergites smoky blackish (ex Gardner)

*Mochtherus Schmidt-Goebel.

11(10). Cerci distinctly jointed. Adnasalia rounded, not truncate at sides. Sclerites of mesothorax to eighth abdominal segment dark.

13(12). Claws subequal. Cerci with numerous irregular joints (fig. 86). Second and third joints of maxillary palpi combined not much more than half as long as first joint, second joint of labial palpi less than half as long as first (fig. 19). Only four distinct ocellar corneae. Tergites not margined at sides. Sclerites of mesothorax to eighth abdominal segment and most of base of cerci metallic, apical part of cerci whitish, pronotum and head brown . . . Catascopus Kirby?

14 (3). Retinaculum small, vestigial or absent. Cervical grove absent (fig. 14). First antennal joint shorter than third. Maxillary stipes

robust, at most twice as long as wide.

15(18). Ligula and its two setae strongly developed. Frontal piece triangularly pointed behind; epicranial suture present though sometimes short. Cerci 5-7-jointed, including fixed basal part (but four-jointed at least sometimes in first stage). Second joint of outer lobe some-Anal tubes with distinct crotchets. what shorter than first. distinct ocelli. (Cymindina.)

16(17). Second joint of maxillary palpi shorter than either the first or third. First joint of labial palpi not much longer or even shorter than second. Retinaculum distinct, though rather small and pointing more forward than inward. Epicranial suture rather long. Nasale with two or four short and broad obtuse teeth (i.e. broadly emarginate in middle and sometimes also exteriorly) . . . Cymindis Latreille.

17(16). Second joint of maxillary palpi much longer than the first or third. First joint of labial palpi much longer than second. Retinaculum absent. Epicranial suture very short. Nasale slightly produced, without teeth (possibly abraded). Cerci with 6 segments, blackish, but paler at extreme apex. (The characters of the mandibles and clypeus may partly be due to abrasion) (ex Gardner)

*Cymindoidea Castelnau.

18(15). Ligula and its two setae minute (fig. 14) or absent. Frontal piece reaching hind margin of head at a point, subtruncate behind and broadly rounded or shortly pointed, in the latter case its sides parallel in posterior half; epicranial suture absent. Cerci with at most four joints, including fixed basal part. (Lebiina.)

19(20). Tergites complete and broad, somewhat overhanging the lateral region (fig. 88), black. Cerci (fig. 88) not jointed, gradually tapering, pointed at apex, with a few short setulae, black and strongly sclerotised. Second joint of outer lobe shorter than the first (fig. 14). Ligula and its setae present, but minute. Anal tubes with conspicuous crotchets (fig. 88) Arsinoë Castelnau.

20(19). Tergites incomplete, leaving the lateral parts of dorsum and the sides broadly exposed, lightly coloured. Cerci 4-jointed, including the fixed base, last joint slightly club-shaped, setae well developed, though few in number. Second joint of outer lobe much longer than the first. Ligula and its setae absent. Anal tubes without crotchets. (The older larva of at least L. scapularis Fourcroy lives in a cocoon, with the mouth-parts embedded in its last victim, the cerci are lost and the mouth-parts, sclerotisations etc. reduced; it can no longer be recognised as a Carabid-larva from its systematic Lebia Latreille.

between the claws (if this is indistinct, the claws with a strong basal tooth). Cerci jointed. Retinaculum vestigial (fig. 57) or absent. Head without a cervical groove. Epicranial suture very short or practically absent. Hooks (fig. 81) present at protrusible anal tubes (Onota floridana?). Seta of first joint of outer lobe extending beyond apex of second joint, usually very much so. (Calleidina.)

22(23). Adnasalia truncate, the front margin at right angles with the longitudinal axis, separated from nasale by a slight notch, the nasale quadridentate, hardly produced though slightly projecting beyond adnasalia. Head as long as or longer than wide, considerably narrowed with rather straight sides in basal third. Second antennal joint as long as fourth . . Onota Chaudoir (and Otoglossa Chaudoir?) TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 1. (JULY 1942.)

23(22). Adnasalia obliquely rounded, passing into nasale in a broadly concave curve, rather strongly projecting above base of mandibles, the nasale produced to approximately the same level. Head often slightly wider than long, rather evenly rounded at sides, and slightly or hardly narrowed at base. Seta of first joint of outer lobe very long and far exceeding the apex of the second joint.

25(24). Claws without a tooth at base. Nasale rather broad, at least twice as

wide as long.

27(26). Nasale not emarginate on median line. Cerci 4-jointed. Colour of the

sclerites testaceous to pale brown.

28(29). Mandibles with an extremely small retinaculum. Nasale truncate in middle and with an emargination towards outer end, the part outward of the emargination almost as much projecting as the median part.

Cerci twice as long as tenth abdominal segment . Andrewesella Csiki.

30 (1). Claws toothed (the tooth sometimes very small (fig. 40), but always distinctly separated from base), or simple. Retinaculum and penicillus well developed, the former projecting by more than a third of the width of the mandible just apicad of retinaculum (figs. 13, 34). Nasale (figs. 33, 34) bidentate, sometimes denticulate on exterior side of base. Head (fig. 13) slightly narrowed to base, without a cervical groove or keel. Apex of tarsus without a pulvillus. Basal joint of antennae shorter than third. Fourth antennal joint longer than first and second (except in Oecornis, where it is subequal to them). Ligula distinct, bisetose. (Dromiina.)

31(32). Cerci shorter than ninth abdominal segment or absent (fig. 1). Anal tubes with strong crotchets. Incision between paramedian teeth not reaching level of emargination that separates the nasale from the adnasalia, outer margin of the paramedian teeth simple or with a single step or denticle (fig. 33). Abdomen often considerably broader than thorax in full-grown larvae. Each claw with a strong (and sometimes a small one in addition) or small (fig. 40) tooth

Dromius Samouelle.

32(31). Cerci rather long, longer than both the ninth and tenth segments together, slender and leathery. Anal tubes without crotchets. Body rather parallel, gradually tapering behind middle.

 34(33). Claws perfectly simple.

35(36). Cerci unjointed. The incision between the paramedian teeth of clypeus shallow, notch-like, the outer margins of the teeth broadly convex and serrulate or crenulate, adnasale with the front margin practically straight (inconspicuously sigmoid) between these serrulations and the angles, the latter narrowly membranous and jagged. Retinaculum of moderate length. Terminal joint of maxillary palpi and particularly of outer lobe longer than preceding joint

Metabletus Schmidt-Goebel.

36(35). Cerci jointed, with four (first stage) or 6-7 distinct joints including basal part. The incision between the paramedian teeth of clypeus (fig. 34) deep, V-shaped, in first-stage larva reaching level of front margin, in second and third stages reaching about half-way to front margin, in the latter stages the outer side of the teeth denticulate; adnasalia with a deep and broad emargination interiorly and a broad, wholly sclerotised lobe at angles, broader than the emargination and passing slightly the level of the paramedian teeth anteriorly. Retinaculum of mandibles (fig. 34) very long, as long as diameter of mandible just beyond retinaculum. Terminal joint of maxillary palpi and outer lobe longer than preceding joint in first stage, equal or slightly shorter in third stage

Oecornis Britton.

26. Colliurini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, though the epicranial suture is rather short. 6 ocelli. Neck-constriction distinct though rather broad. Nasale truncate, denticulate. Antennae not or not much longer than mandibles, with few setae, third joint at least as long as first, second slightly shorter than first, appendix of third joint well developed, on exterior truncature of third joint. Mandibles moderately curved, with the cutting edge serrate apicad of retinaculum, the latter strong and simple, penicillus present. Maxillae with (Ctenodactylina) or without (Colliurina) a vestigial inner lobe. Ligula distinct, bisetose. Legs with two equal, simple claws, without pulvilli or other appendages. Tergites incomplete at sides, the latter not margined. Cerci fixed at base, slender, leathery, with three or four articulations, each just beyond a setiferous nodule.

27. Dryptini.

Head strongly constricted at base, forming a narrow neck, which is, however, not defined by a cervical groove or keel. Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture long. Nasale produced into a short or long horn, adnasalia prominent as short broad lobes. Antennae slender, longer than mandibles, third joint shorter than first and second, and not

wider than either, the appendix very small. Mandibles slender, strongly curved, cutting edge smooth apicad of retinaculum, the latter strong, penicillus absent. Maxillae long and slender, inner lobe absent, outer lobe with the second joint very narrow and long or at least its apical part very narrow. Labium with the ligula bisetose, palpi slender. Legs long and slender, with two claws, the base of the latter with a spiniform or pulvillus-like appendix, which is usually present at each claw, but in some Galerita evidently only on one claw of each leg. Sclerites of abdomen incomplete, ninth tergite divided along median line. Cerci very long, basal part fixed, followed by ten or more joints, rarely by only a few very long joints (character of first-stage larvae?).

1 (4). Horn of nasale short and broadly rounded. Head-capsule as long as wide or longer, narrowed anteriorly. First and second antennal joints subequal. Ligula membranous, short and broadly rounded. Gular suture single and distinct, ventral surface of head normal. Cutting edge of mandibles forming a rounded, prominent blade basad of retinaculum, the latter simple. Second joint of outer lobe much longer than first joint, extremely slender, rod-shaped; second joint of maxillary palpi longer than third and often first. Apical part of the claw-appendix, which is present on both claws and inserted on ventral surface of base, membranous and pale (figs. 42, 43). Tergites not margined laterally or margined only in anterior half of

sides.

2 (3). Ventral sclerites of first to sixth abdominal segments free, ventrite of these segments strongly transverse, separated from the other sclerites by broad membranous areas. All the joints of the cerci equally well defined and very regular, though not of quite equal length, each segment with a seta at apex but without any other hairs. Head-capsule as long as wide. Pulvilli much shorter than claws, considerably widened at apex (fig. 43) Drypta Latreille.

4 (1). Horn of nasale very long and narrow, subparallel, bifurcate at apex (fig. 98). Head-capsule wider than long to as wide as long, widened to front end. First antennal joint very much longer than the second, at least subequal to the combined second and third joints. Ligula chitinous, narrow, and more or less projecting. Gular suture not visible, ventral surface of head much shorter than dorsal surface, transversely embossed behind labium, the embossed part defined behind by a deep transverse impression. Cutting edge of mandibles simple basad of retinaculum, but the latter sometimes with a small auxiliary tooth near apex. Second joint of outer lobe as in Drypta or subequal in length to the first joint but then the apex suddenly contracted and forming a short point. Second joint of maxillary palpi usually shorter than first and third joints. Appendix of claws small, spiniform, inserted on interior ventral surface of claws, sometimes present on only one of the two claws (fig. 37). Tergites narrowly margined laterally. Ventral sclerites of abdomen largely Galerita Fabricius. fused.

29. Helluonini.

Nasale shortly produced, truncate or toothed. Antennae with few setae, very short and stout, much shorter than the mandibles, second and third joints separated only by a suture, first segment longer than any of the others, less than twice as long as wide. Mandibles less than twice as long as wide, cutting edge smooth, retinaculum rather small and stout, penicillus absent, basal half of outer surface with about 4-6 strong setae. Maxillae without an inner lobe, basal joint of outer lobe fused with stipes, densely hairy on dorso-interior surface, maxillary palpi stout, second joint the longest, stipes stout, less than twice as long as wide. Ligula chitinous, bisetose, labial palpi stout. Sclerites of thorax and abdomen complete, tergites not margined. Two simple claws. Ninth tergite divided along median line, cerci very stout, at least as broad as tenth segment, the latter stout, not much wider than long; at the tip of the stout joint of the cerci a minute pale rudiment of a second joint. Body very parallel-sided, hairy, the middle segments piceous to black, the extremities reddish.

2 (1). Claws equal or subequal. Nasale separated from adnasalia by a strong, rounded emargination which is directly prolonged in a curved line into the adnasalia. Third joint of maxillary palpi more than half

as wide at base as apex of second joint.

4 (3). Cerci of approximately equal width in basal half, tapering slightly in apical half or less to rounded apex (fig. 85). Nasale with two or more teeth. Terminal segments of maxillary and labial palpi soft-skinned, without a more or less rigid and granulate apical cap.

30. Anthiini.

Frontal piece not reaching hind margin of head, epicranial suture very distinct.

Nasale produced and somewhat rounded, subtruncate, not toothed. Cervical groove and keel present. Antennae more or less distinctly shorter than

mandibles; second and third joints entirely fused, appendix wanting. Mandibles with a smooth cutting edge and strong retinaculum, without a penicillus. Maxillae: stipes not much longer than wide, inner lobe absent, but the inner apex of the stipes produced into a long strongly-haired lobiform process, outer lobe two-jointed, the joints slender and cylindrical, the second shorter than the first, maxillary palpi stout, palpiger and first joint very short and transverse, second joint somewhat longer than wide, subcylindrical or slightly widened to apex, third joint cap-shaped, consisting of a short chitinous ring, which is hardly narrower than the second joint at apex, and a membranous coupole, which can be retracted (postmortal change?); the last two joints sometimes of more normal shape on one side, probably as a result of regeneration. Labium rather hairy, produced into a conspicuous chitinous ligula, the two setae inserted on the dorsal surface of the latter and not very conspicuous. Two very unequal claws, one of them sometimes extremely small and inconspicuous. Tergites not margined, complete, ventral sclerites incomplete on first to seventh abdominal segments, interior postventrites broadly separated. Cerci stout, short, coniform, strongly pointed and setose, as is the entire body. Dorsum mainly black or piceous but one or more segments almost always pale reddish or yellow.

1 (4). Head, without mouth-parts, at least nine-tenths as long (including neck) on dorsal surface as wide (fig. 16). Cerci hardly wider at base than tenth segment or conspicuously shorter than head, and never more than twice as wide as tenth segment, strongly and rather evenly pointed in apical part, more or less shining (fig. 84). Adnasalia oblique, conspicuously produced above mandibles and more or less reaching level of nasale. If the epipleurites are bluntly coniform, the head is much longer than wide.

3 (2). Head longer than wide, very slightly narrowed at neck. Adnasalia not quite reaching level of nasale. Antennae much shorter than mandibles. Cerci shorter than dorsal surface of head, considerably wider at base than apex of tenth segment, and more or less distinctly wider than its base. Epipleurites not coniform (gracilis hemiraphis?) or coniform (caillaudi ukerewensis)

Polyhirma Chaudoir?

4 (1). Head, without mouth-parts, much wider than long on dorsal surface, strongly narrowed at neck. Cerci more than twice as wide at base as tenth segment, longer than dorsal surface of head-capsule, usually suddenly constricted and pointed at apex. Adnasalia very broadly rounded exteriorly and usually much less prominent than nasale. Epipleurites coniform and strongly hirsute Anthia Weber.

31. Brachinini.

Nasale without any teeth. Head without a distinct neck-part, cervical groove absent. Antennae not longer than mandibles, with few setae, third joint very large, much longer and thicker in first-stage larvae than the others. Cutting edge of mandible smooth, with at most a small retinaculum. Maxillae: inner lobe absent. Ligula and the pair of setae absent, first joint of labial palpi stout, the second longer than it. Claws neither toothed

nor appendiculate. Tergites incomplete, not margined. Cerci absent or much shorter than the tenth segment, less than twice as long as wide. (Adult larvae are sometimes strongly adapted to sedentary half-parasitic life, some of the characters being then obliterated.)

1 (2). Two claws. Cerci absent. Mandibles without a retinaculum or a penicillus. Tenth abdominal segment not longer than the ninth, rather broad and segment-like. Second joint of the outer lobe slightly longer than first; second and third joints of maxillary palpi slender. A pair of anal tubes without crotchets, but with numerous tubercles. (First-stage larva—later stages unknown—with a single spiniform egg-burster (fig. 68) on hind end of frontal piece and with a pair of strong chitinous hooks on ventral hind end of sclerotised part of tenth abdominal segment.)

Pheropsophus Solie

LIST OF MATERIAL AND LITERATURE STUDIED.

Abbreviations.

B.M. = British Museum (Natural History); coll. = collection (coll. Z. = coll. van Emden); ded. = presented; det. = identified; educ. = bred; exuv. = exuvia; hw. = width of head in mm.; I. = adult; L = larva (I, II and III refer to the first, second and third instars respectively); leg. = collected; M.C. = Universitetets Zoologisk Museum, Copenhagen; M.P. = Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris, Laboratoire d'Entomologie; M.W. = U.S. National Museum, Washington; P. = pupa.

Where not expressly stated, it is not known definitely that a larva has been bred. The material marked "Verhoeff" has been purchased by the British Museum from Dr. K. W. Verhoeff, Pasing, nr. Munich, and with most of it no information other than the name of the species has been supplied. Much of this material was bred, and this may be regarded as practically certain, where several L I are concerned.—All the specimens in my own collection and in the available material of the Muséum d'Histoire naturelle, Paris, have been identified by myself, unless otherwise stated. With regard to the material in the British Museum, Universitetets Zoologisk Museum, Copenhagen, and United States National Museum, the information added to the material is cited, and deviations are marked "Emd. det." For the larvae collected by Father A. Conrads (in my coll.) credit should also be given to the Order of the White Fathers, to which Father Conrads belongs.

Cychrus caraboides L. 1 L II (hw. 1·81) Germany: Sächsische Schweiz, Kirnitzsch area, 30.x.21, K. Dorn leg. ded., coll. E. 318.—C. attenuatus Fabricius. 2 L II (hw. 1·43–1·79) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L II (hw. 1·57) Germany: Glatzer Schneeberg, Seefelder, 3.xi.34, F. Pax leg., ded., coll. E. 1775. These larvae were not bred, but the less diverging cerci, shorter terminal joint of maxillary palpi, more pronounced and narrower dark median part of the tergites and the much finer, shallower and transversely rugose puncturation indicate that they must belong to the only other species occurring

in the Sudeten Mountains. In most of these characters the larva differs from that described by Schiödte, whereas larva 318 fits the description of rostratus (= caraboides).

Scaphinotus (Maronetus) debilis Leconte? 1 L III (hw. 1-84) U.S.A.: Round Knob (N.C.), 23.vi.93, under leaves on damp hill-side in ravine, coll. Hubbard 318, M.W.; 1 L II (hw. 1-43) ibid., vi.93, in damp wood under leaves, coll. Hubbard 317, M.W.—sp. ("Nomaretus?"). 1 L (hw. 1-13) Linglestown (Pa.), 3.v.29, A. B. Champlain leg., M.W. Almost identical with the larvae of M. debilis: cerci slightly shorter, hind angles of ninth abdominal tergite less pointed; third antennal segment as long as fourth (slightly longer than fourth in M. d.), lateral parts of tergites less rugose; pronotum less transverse; size smaller.

Sphaeroderus stenostomus var. lecontei Dejean? 1 L III (hw. 2.25) no

locality, coll. Hamilton 580, M.W.

Ceroglossus suturalis Fabricius. 2 L III (hw. 2·62-2·72) Tierra del Fuego: Rio Grande, Estancia Viamonte, P. W. Reynolds leg., B.M. (fig. 72).—1 L III (hw. 2·69) Canal du Beagle, Mission du Cap Horn 1882-3, 323, M.P. See Lapouge, 1929, Gen. Ins. 192: 59.—gloriosus Gerstäcker and aeneovirescens Faz, see Claude-Joseph, 1932, Rev. chilen. Hist. nat. 35: 31.

Calosoma sycophanta L. 1 L III (hw. 3.48) Germany: Goseck, nr. Naumburg (Saale), 5.vii.25, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 1045.—C. scrutator F. 1 L II (hw. 3·1), 1 L III (hw. 4·2) U.S.A.: New Orleans, Sallé leg., B.M.—C. inquisitor L. 1 L III (hw. 2.86) Germany: Harth-wood, nr. Leipzig, 27.vi.15, on road, coll. E. 61 (figs. 29 and 75). See Cook, 1936, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent. 3: pl. 11.—C. maderae rugosum Degeer? 2 L III dry (hw. 3·24-3·28) S. Africa, B.M.—? 1 L III (hw. 3·19) E. Africa: Kilimanjaro, zone of plantations, Kilema, June, Ch. Alluaud leg., M.P.—C. sp. 1 L dry (hw. 2.86) Kenya: Lari, 15.vii-26.ix.99, C. S. Belton, B.M.—2 L (hw. 3.59 and 3.70) Kenya: Eldonyu eb Veru, Belton leg., B.M. (two species).—1 L (hw. 3.63) Algeria: El Golea, M.P.—1 L (hw. 3.24) Colonie du Cap: Steynsburg, 1909, F. Ellenberger, M.P.—1 L (hw. 3.17) Madagascar: Région de Sakarami, 1905, M. de Rothschild, M.P.-1 L dry (hw. 3.45) Monclova, Coahuila, Palmer leg., B.M.—1 L dry (hw. 3.21) Argentine: El Jabali, 4.i.31, J. B. Anderson leg., B.M.—1 L II (hw. 2.23). 6 L III (hw. 3·24-3·42-3·70) Persia, 20.vi.00, F. W. Townsend leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 3.63) China: Nanking, 1908, G. de Joannis, M.P.—1 L (hw. 4.19) Australia, 12.v.24, prairie, G. H. Wilkins leg., B.M.—C. beesoni Andrewes, himalayanum Gestro, indicum Hope, see Gardner, 1927, Ind. Forest Rec. (Ent.) 13:63-65; 1929, loc. cit. 14: 104-105. For the identification of other species see: Burgess and Collins, 1917, Bull. U.S. Dept. Agric. 417: 18-20 and Lapouge, 1929, Gen. Insect. 192: 44-60.

Carabus. A large mass of material of numerous species is to hand, but this would have to be the subject of a special paper, as the many subgenera created on adult characters are, so far, not in line with the sections formed from a study of larval characters (see Emden, 1936, Ent. Blätt. 32:16). The material is therefore not listed, but the head-widths of the British and non-alpine central European species and the number of each species measured are stated in the table of head-widths. The following recent papers will be found useful for identification: Bengtsson, 1927, Lunds Univ. Arsskr. (N.F.) (2) 24 (2):1-89. Lapouge, 1927, C.r. Congr. Soc. sav. Paris 1927:435-449, 6 pl.; 1929, Gen. Insect. 192:44-60. Raynaud, 1931-2, Miscell. ent. 38:(3-8, 81-85), 34:(28-29, 65-67); 1935, Butl. Inst. Catal. Hist. nat. 35:2-5.

Pelophila. No larvae are available. Except for the movable cerci of the

full-grown larva the larvae described by Johnson and Carpenter have very little in common with those of the other Nebriini. The first stage is said to have fixed cerci, but no regard of this has been taken in the key, as it is almost certainly a faulty observation. The larva requires renewed study.

Eurynebria complanata L. 1 L II (hw. 2.62) France: Plage de Platz, 30.xii.04, Lapouge leg., det., B.M.—1 L III dry (hw. 3.28) N. Devon: Croyde,

K. G. Blair leg., det., B.M.

Nebria (Nebria s.str.) brevicollis Fabricius.³³ 1 L I (hw. 0.84) Harpenden, Herts, Rothamsted Exp. Sta., K. D. Baweja, Emd. det. B.M.—1 L I (hw. 0.85) Windsor, 7.xi.35, H. Donisthorpe, B.M.—2 L III (hw. 1.71-1.81) Epping Forest, Essex, 14.iv., bred, K. G. Blair, B.M.—3 L III (2 dry, hw. 1.57-1.64-1.69) no locality, B.M.—2 L I (hw. 0.87) Germany: Leipzig, Burgaue, 25.x.23, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 1205.—1 LI (hw. 0.80) Schmiedeberg, Riesengebirge, Förster leg., Reichert det., ded., coll. E. 347.—1 L I (hw. 0.89) Leipzig-Connewitz, 2.x.19, in growing reed, coll. E. 235.—1 L II (hw. 1.22) Leipzig-Klein-Zschocher, 7.ii.32, on damp bank, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 914.— 1 L II (hw. 1.24) Lindenthal, nr. Leipzig, 2.xi.30, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 889.—1 L II dry (hw. 1.15) Luckenwalde, Mark Brandenburg, 14.ii.28, Delahon leg., Korschefsky ded., coll. E.—1 L III (hw. 1.71) Naumburg, Saale, 25.iii.21, sifted, H. Maertens leg., ded., coll. E. 408.—2 L III (hw. 1.60-1.78) Denmark: Dyrehavn, nr. Copenhagen, 8.iv.28, E. Rosenberg leg., det., ded., coll. E. 769.—1 L III (hw. 1.71) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L I (hw. 0.89) France: Compiègne, Oise, 6.ii.38, Colas leg., M.P.—1 L I (hw. 0.91), 1 L II (hw. 1.34) Marly, Seine-et-Oise, 20.xii.37, Levasseur leg., M.P.—? 1 L III (hw. 1.60) Switzerland: Davos, 1850 m., 11.ix., Verhoeff leg., B.M.—N. (N.) hemprichi Klug? 1 L III dry (hw. 2·13) Palestine: Jerusalem, 13.ii.29, Tarpukhi, Emd. det., B.M.—N. (N.) andalusia Rambur? 1 L III (hw. 1.74) Algeria: Bouzaréa, 20.ii.93, P. Lesne, M.P.—2 L I (hw. 0.84-0.87), 1 L II (hw. 1.19), 1 L III (hw. 1.78) Algeria: Ravin de la Femme Sauvage, nr. Algier, end of xii.92, P. Lesne leg., M.P.-1 L II (hw. 1.26) Algeria: Frais Vallon, env. d'Alger, fin xii.92, P. Lesne, M.P.—N. (N.) rubicunda Quensel? 1 L III (hw. 1.76) same data, i.92, M.P.—N. (N.) cameroni Andrewes. 1 L III (hw. 1.65) India: Dehra Dun, U.P., 30.i.30, in sand, J. C. M. Gardner leg., det., ded., B.M.—N. (Paranebria) gyllenhali Schönherr. 1 L I (hw. 0.94) Iceland: Gryla, 28.iv.29, under stones, R. Ph. Dollfus, M.P.—3 L III (hw. 1.53-1.63-1.73) Iceland, B. Samundner leg., B.M.—1 L III dry (hw. 1-67) Iceland: Reykjavik, 9.v.05, B. Samundner leg., B.M.—1 L I (hw. 0.91), 1 L II (hw. 1.15) Austria: Stubaier Alp, in soc. N. gyllenhali adults, H. Janetschek leg., B.M.—1 L III on slide (hw. 1.53) Palfneralpe, 2070 m., 17.ix.26, K. W. Verhoeff, B.M.—? 1 L III (hw. 1.67) Germany: Oberbayern, 1750 m., K. W. Verhoeff, B.M.—N. (P.) livida L.? 1 L I (hw. 0.98), 1 L III (hw. 2.06) Bucowina: Czernowitz, 7.vii.21, at bank of river, Netolitzky, coll. E. 665.—N. (P.) jockischi Sturm. (hw. 1-15) Austria: Stubaier Alp, Alpein, in soc. N. gyllenhali and jockischi adults, H. Janetschek leg., B.M.-1 LI (hw. 1-15), 1 LIII (hw. 2-06) Switzerland: Lower Wallis, lake Barberine, nr. Châtelard, 1900 m., Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 1977 (labelled N. castanea or laticollis by collector, but obviously more or less identical with 577).—N. (P.) jockischi nigricornis Villa. 1 L II? (hw. 1.74) Germany: Grosse Schneegrube, Riesengebirge, 3.vii.23, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 577.—N. (P.) sp. 1 L II ? (hw. 1-36) France: Larrau, B. Pyr., xi.37. R. Paulian leg., M.P. Pronotum only slightly wider than long, para-

³³ Some of these larvae may be expected to belong to *N. degenerata* Schaufuss, the adult of which is the same size and is extremely similar in appearance.

median teeth of clypeal horn very much longer than outer teeth.—N. (Oreonebria) angusticollis Bonelli? 1 L II (hw. 0.98) Switzerland: Col de Fenêtre, Val Ferret, 1935, in soc. N. angusticollis and castanea planiuscula adults, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 1975. This is a very isolated type, in which the pronotum is fully as long as wide, the head unusually rectangular and the outer teeth of the frontal horn very short, only slightly more projecting than the inner angles of the adnasalia, which are somewhat prominent.—N. (Oreonebria) castanea Bonelli? 1 L II (hw. 1-08) Kandersteg, Balmhorn-hut, Gastern Valley, in soc. Nebriola sp. larva and castanea, cordicollis escheri Heer and rhaetica K. & J. Daniel, adults, Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 580.-N. sp. (characters of Oreonebria). 1 L III (hw. 1.88) China: Inkiaphou, S. Shensi, A. David, M.P.—N. (Nebriola) fontinalis K. & J. Daniel? 1 L III? (hw. 1.40) Bergamask Alps: Gerola alta, 2100 m., M. Bänninger leg., det., ded., coll. E. 795.—N. (Nebriola) heeri K. Daniel? 1 L III (hw. 1.33) Calfeisen Valley, Sardona-hut, 2240 m., M. Bänninger leg., det., ded., coll. E. 1341; 1 L III (hw. 1.36) Maderau Valley, Brunni-glacier, 2150 m., in soc. N. heeri adults, M. Bänninger leg., det., ded., coll. E. 792.—N. (Nebriola) cordicollis Chaudoir. 1 L III (hw. 1-29) Wallis, Binnen Valley, M. Bänninger leg., det., ded., coll. E. 868.—N. (Nebriola) cordicollis var.? 1 L III (hw. 1.40) Summit of Gemmipass, 1935, in soc. cordicollis var., (Alpaeus) bremii and (Oreon.) castanea adults, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 1974.—N. (Nebriola) spp. 5 L III (hw. 1-22-1.28-1.34) Summit of Sussten-pass, 2200-2400 m., some in soc. N. castanea v. brunnea adults, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 793, 797, 798.—1 L (hw. 1.19) Jura, Mt. Tendre, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 801.—1 L III (hw. 1.40) Kien Valley, Gspaltenhorn-hut, 2380 m., M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 794.—N. (Alpaeus) lafresnayei Serville, see Raynaud, 1934, Miscell. ent. 35 (9): (1-8) pl. 1; 1935, loc. cit. 36 (2): 16.—N. (Alpaeus) atlantica Oberthur, see Paulian et Villiers, 1939, Rev. franc. Ent. 6:46, figs. 9-17. The drawings in both papers have obviously been made without a camera lucida, and the texts mainly report on generic characters, but from Paulian et Villiers' fig. 15 it would seem that the setae of the abdominal tergites are placed as in Nebria s.str. etc., and from Raynaud's fig. 2 (which otherwise is certainly not exact) the seta of the lateral parts of clypeus seems to be placed as in the same subgenera. Raynaud has counted six ocelli, Paulian et Villiers only five, and the latter statement seems to require confirmation. The prothorax of both species would appear to be similar to that of the species listed above as "angusticollis?"

Leistus (Pogonophorus) spinibarbis Fabricius. 1 L II (hw. 1·22) Germany: Freiberg (Unstrut), Rödelplateau, 27.iii.35, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1872 (figs. 3, 69.) Cerci with one seta more than in Leistus s.str.—L. (Leistophorus) nitidus Duftschmid, see Raynaud, 1937, Misc. ent. 38: (64–66).—L. (s.str.) ferrugineus L. 1 L III (hw. 1·06, cerci 1·79) France: Versailles, 4.i.32, among grass-roots on marshy ground, L. Mesnil leg., ded., coll. E. 928.—1 L III (hw. 0·98, cerci broken) Germany: Harth-wood, nr. Leipzig, 22.ii.15, sifted from grass-roots, Martin leg., A. Reichert ded., coll. E. 13.—2 L III dry (hw. 1·05–1·08, cerci 1·64 and broken) Stanmore Common, 9.vi.(sic)34, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—2 L II (hw. 0·83–0·88, cerci 1·45) France: Marly (Seine), 26.xii.37, dried-out pool, L. Levasseur leg., M.P.—1 L III (hw. 1·05, cerci 1·74) Forêt de Marly, 23.i.38, between roots of Scirpus at the border of a marsh, R. Paulian leg., M.P.—(?) 1 L II (hw. 0·84, cerci 1·36) Harpenden, Herts, Rothamst. Exp. Sta., K. D. Baweja, B.M.—L. (s.str.) terminatus Hellwig (rufescens auct.)? 1 L III (hw. 1·05, cerci 1·57) France: Versailles, 4.i.32, among grass-roots on marshy ground, L. Mesnil leg., ded., coll. E. 928.—1 L III (hw. 1·05, cerci

1.47), 1 P. C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M. (labelled "Leistus ferrugineus", but fitting Schiödte's description of L. rufescens).—L. (s.str.) terminatus Hellwig (rufescens auct.). 3 L I (hw. 0.61–0.63–0.66, cerci 1.12–1.15) Germany: Schkeuditz, nr. Leipzig, 5.x.18, sifted on marshy ground, coll. E. 171.—1 L II (hw. 0.80, cerci 1.29) Lindenthal, nr. Leipzig, 2.xi.30, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 890.—14 L III (hw. 0.92–1.00–1.05, cerci 1.40–1.51–1.64) various places nr. Leipzig: Bistum, 26.xii.35, on snow, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 2516; Grossstädteln, 11.ii.34, under bark, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1138; Schönau, 17.i.32, 12.iii.32, sand-pit, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 917, 1024; Kohren, Stöckigt-wood, 5.i.31, sifted, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 915; Portitz, 27.xii.31, sifted at ditch, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 915; Portitz, 27.xii.32, in rotten tree-stump, A. Schulze leg., ded., coll. E. 460.—1 L III (hw. 1.01, cerci 1.47) Beimoor-wood, nr. Hamburg, from Alnus-stump, K. Sokolowski leg., Emd. det., Mus. Hamburg ded., coll. E. 1170.

Notiophilus biguttatus Fabricius. 1 exuv. III, 1 L III (hw. 0.87, cerci 1.29), 1 I. Denmark: Dyrehavn, nr. Copenhagen, 24.viii.02 (pupated 28.viii.), W. Schlick leg., det., E. Rosenberg ded., coll. E. 933.—I L III dry (hw. 0.84, cerci missing) Iceland, B.M. (mentioned as Stenus sp.? by Mason, 1890, Ent. mon. Mag. 26:199).—4 LI (hw. 0.48-0.49-0.50, cerci 0.65), 2 LII (hw. 0.56-0.59-0.61, cerci 0.87-0.88-0.91), 1 L III (hw.?, cerci 1.19) Germany: Doberschütz, nr. Eilenburg, 3.vi.23, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 1204, 1207 (fig. 4).—3 L III (hw. 0.84, cerci 1.22) S. Kensington, viii.34, S. J. Turpin leg., B.M.— 1 L II (hw. 0.50, cerci 0.87), 2 L III (hw. 0.79-0.84, cerci 1.29) Boxhill, Surrey, v.32, K. G. Blair, B.M.—1 L I on slide (hw. 0.50, cerci 0.77) C. Europe, iv.22, among decaying needles of spruce, Verhoeff, Emd. det., B.M. (labelled Leistus spinibarbis).—1 L III on slide (hw. 0.87, cerci 1.08) Pasing, nr. Munich, 15.v.23, on field, K. W. Verhoeff leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 0.85, cerci broken) C. Europe, Verhoeff, Emd. det., B.M., labelled "Leistus spinibarbis".—N. aquaticus L.? 1 L I (hw. 0.56, cerci 1.05) Bexhill, Sussex, v.32, K. G. Blair leg., B.M. (apical two-fifths of cerci whitish, abdominal tergites brown).—N. sp. 1 L III? (hw. 0.70, cerci 1.08) Kingsbury, London, 21.vi.34, S. J. Turpin leg., B.M. (head and tergites almost entirely testaceous, cerci brown with short whitish tips, perhaps rufipes Curt.?).—N. sp. 1 L II (hw. 0.66) Croyde, N. Devon, iv.28, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.

Pachyteles? sp. 1 L (hw. 1.61) Guatemala: Primavera, 4.i.39, log, under bark, M.W. The larva is just less than 10 mm. long and not quite 2 mm. wide. Full-grown larvae of some of the species should be even smaller, some others considerably longer. This is certainly another genus than the larvae described as Physea setosa.

Physea setosa Chaudoir, see Emden, 1936, Arb. phys. angew. Ent. 3: 250-256. Omophron limbatum Fabricius. 1 L I on slide (hw. c. 0.52) raised from adults collected at Lindenthal, nr. Leipzig, vi-vii., coll. E. 145.—1 L III (hw. 1.08) Denmark: Fürsö, 19.viii.94, in sand, K. W. Schlick leg., det., Rosenberg ded., coll. E. 186.—O. rothschildi Alluaud? 1 L II (hw. 0.87), 4 L III (hw. 1.26-1.30-1.34) Lake Rudolph, central island, M. de Rothschild, M.P.—O. tessellatum Say and americanum Dejean, see Silvey, 1936, Pap. Michigan Acad. Sci. 21: 687.—O. smaragdus Andrewes, see Gardner, 1938, Indian Forest Rec., (n.s.) (Ent.) 3: 149.

Loricera pilicornis F. 1 L III (hw. 1·12) Hertfordshire, 21.vi.29, G. V. Wick leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 1·08) C. Europe, 20.vi., Verhoeff, B.M.—2 L II (hw. 0·73–0·77), 1 L III (hw. 1·08) Denmark: Dyrehavn, nr. Copenhagen, 28.vii.06,

E. Rosenberg leg., det., ded., coll. E. 187.—1 L III (hw. 1.08) Germany: Schkeuditz, nr. Leipzig, 27.vi.18, sifted from decaying leaves, coll. E. 102; 2 L III dry, 1 L III on slide (hw. 1.08-1.11-1.15), same data, 13.vii.18, coll. E.

Elaphrus riparius L. 2 L, 1 exuv. III (hw. 1·04-1·06-1·08) Burgh, vi.41, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L II (hw. 0·68), 2 L III (hw. 0·99-1·01) Bookham, Surrey, 23.viii.32, K. G. Blair, B.M.—? 1 L I (hw. 0·49), 1 L II (hw. 0·71) Germany: Tolkemit, Frisches Haff, E. Prussia, 7.vii.37, in sand of beach, Otten leg., Korschefsky ded., coll. E. 2877.—E. cupreus Duftschmid. 1 L III (hw. 1·05) Germany: Stotternheim, nr. Erfurt, 18.vii.24, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 2506 (fig. 73).—1 L III dry (hw. 1·15) Schkeuditz, nr. Leipzig, 13.vii.18, sifted from decaying leaves, coll. E., pres. to B.M.—1 L III (hw. 1·15) Dübener Heide, nr. Leipzig, 5.viii.23, in detritus at bank of pool in wood, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 2399.—E. aureus Müller, see Raynaud, 1937, Misc. ent. 38: (61-64).

Blethisa multipunctata L. 1 LIII (hw. 1.53) Denmark: Damhussöen,

15.vii.10, under stone, Schlick leg., M.C. (fig. 74).

Pasimachus spp. 1 L (hw. 4·13) Mexico: Toluca, Mex., M.W.—1 L (hw. 4·65) U.S.A.: Retreat, N.C., under stone in meadow, 17.vi.93, coll. Hubbard 304, M.W.—1 L, died in pupating (hw. 4·0) Eureka, Ill., M.W.—1 L (hw. 4·7) Texas, B.M.

Gen. indet. 1 L II or III (hw. 3.0) Uganda: Mt. Elgon, 10,000 ft., iii.34, bamboo zone, H. B. Johnston, B.M. The larva is amazingly closely related to *Pasimachus*, but the locality cannot be doubted. All the species known from Mt. Elgon belong to *Scarites*, S. elgonensis Bänninger being particularly numerous (Bänninger, 1935, Miss. sci. Omo 2 (4): 91-99).

Storthodontus coquereli amplipennis Bänninger. 1 L I (hw. 3.9), 1 L I pale, 2 eggs Madagascar: Island Bérafia, Dist. Nossibé, M. Bänninger det., ded.,

coll. E. 1874.

Dyscherus praelongus Fairmaire? 1 L II? (hw. 4·4) Madagascar 79·19, B.M. The larva was acquired together with an adult of D. praelongus and was labelled thus by Dr. Blair; its characters seem to confirm this association.—D. sp. 1 L III (hw. 6·0) Madagascar: Paya Mahafaly, Bastard leg., M.P.

Scarites (Distichus?) sp. 1 L (hw. 2-66) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 30.iv.32, under loose bark, F. Nevermann, coll. 2973. This specimen was found associated with adults of Morio georgiae Palisot, and was at first regarded as that species. There are, however, too many deviations from typical Pterostichini (absence of antennal appendage, of mandibular penicillus, immarginate, complete abdominal tergites, slightly unequal claws). I think this is most probably the larva of a Distichus in spite of the rather abnormal find under loose bark, which may, however, have been that of a tree lying on the ground.—S. (Distichus?) spp. 4 L III (hw. 2.56—2.58—2.60) Tonkin: upper region of river Claire, spring-summer, A. Weiss leg., M.P.—1 L III (hw. 2.34) Ivory Coast: San Pedro, Thoiré leg., M.P.—S. (Scaritodes) semicarinatus Chaudoir. 1 L II (hw. 2.48) Brazil: Mendés, Rio de Janeiro, 25.ix.33, in nest of Atta sexdens L., H. Eidmann leg. in soc. imag., ded., coll. E. 2442 (fig. 9).— S. (Scarites pars a) cyclops Crotch? (or buparius Forster, adult 23-38 mm.). 1 L III (hw. 6.3) Tangier, G. Buchet leg., M.P.—S. (Scarites pars b) sulcatus Olivier. 1 L II (hw. 4.2), 2 L III (hw. 5.4-6.2) Burma: Sahmaw, 4.iii.34, B.M.—S. (S.) subterraneus quadriceps Chaudoir. 3 L II? (hw. 2·30-2·39-2·44) U.S.A.: Milwaukee, Wisc., 14-22.viii.37, Harry van Emden leg., ded., coll. E. 2975. 2976, 2979 (fig. 51). S. subterraneus quadriceps is the only species of Scarites collected by my brother, and the adult was very common at the places

where the larvae were found.—S. (S.) abbreviatus Dejean. 1 L III (hw. 3·24) Madeira, v-vi.96, in dead laurel-tree, A. Fauvel leg., M.P.—S. (S.) tenebricosus molossulus Bänninger? 2 L I (hw. 2·58-2·69), 2 L III (hw. 4·5-4·7) E. Africa: Ukerewe Island, Lake Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2926. S. senegalensis simogonus Chaudoir (adult 19-28 mm.) has also been collected by Father Conrads, but is obviously too small for these larvae.—S. (S.) indus Olivier, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:190.—S. (S.) spp. 1 L (hw. 2·16) Persia: Susé, de Morgan leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 2·09) France: Pondichéry, viii.01, M. Maindron leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 3·14) Morocco: nr. Tangier, G. Buchet leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 4·1) Morocco: Oglat el Rachid, Sedillot leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 2·90) Argentina: Gran Chaco, banks of Rio Tapenaga, nr. Colonia Florencia, E. R. Wagner leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 2·44) Argentina: Buenos Aires, Rafinesque leg., M.P.

Clivina fossor L. 1 L III (hw. 0.84) Denmark: Ellistöd, Lolland, v., M.C. Dyschirius arenosus Steph. 1 L II? (hw. 0.45) Corton, Suffolk, ix.26, K. G.

Blair leg., B.M.

Trechini: The literature is cited by Boldori, 1932, Mem. Soc. ent. ital. 10:149-167. The few papers which have appeared since are: 4 by Boldori (cited in the last of them 1936, Le Grotte d'Italia (2) 1:93 note), one each by Gardner (1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:184, Trechus indicus Putzeys), Womersley (see Amblystogenium), Strouhal (1938, Mitt. Höhlen-Karstforsch. 1938:105, Anophthalmus mariae Schatzmeyer), and Bolivar (see Trechus). Very few larvae of this group being at hand, the characters of the genera have mainly been taken from the literature.

Perileptus areolatus Creutzer? 1 L I on slide, no egg-bursters (hw. 0.26) Italy: Sabbio Chiese, prov. Brescia, 21.vii.35, at bank of mountain-stream, L. Boldori leg., det., ded., coll. E. See Boldori 1936, Studi Trentini Sci. nat.

17 (1): (7 pp.).—1 L II? on slide (hw. 0.38) no locality, coll. E.

Aepopsis robini Laboulbène. 2 L III (hw. 0·40-0·42) France: Ile d'Yeu, Vendée, vii-viii.37, in cracks of rocks, R. Paulian leg., det., M.P. ded., B.M.

Temnostega antarctica Enderlein and Amblystogenium pacificum Putzeys. Only a head of the larva of each of these species was known to Enderlein (1909, in Drygalski, Deuts. Südpolar-Exp., Zool. 2:372, 374), and Jeannel and Boldori rely on his descriptions. The characters of the cerci and tarsi etc. are, therefore, hypothetic, as far as Temnostega is concerned. Full-grown entire larvae of Amblystogenium have since been obtained and described by Womersley (1936, B.A.N.Z. Antarctic Res. Exp. Rep. (B) 4(1):25). Although no details of the mouth-parts are given, the legs are said to end in two slightly unequal claws, and the fourth antennal (sic) joint to be subdivided by a distinct suture.

Typhlotrechus bilimeki hauckei Ganglbauer. 1 L II on slide (hw. 0.98) Yugoslavia: Ciganska jama, 22.ix.29, E. Pretner leg., L. Boldori ded., M.W.— T. b. hacqueti Sturm. 1 L III (hw. 1.05) Ljubljana, S.H.S., Velika Pasjica,

near Gorenji, 25.ii.34, Pretner leg., Boldori det., coll. E. 1920.

Speotrechus humeralis Dodero. 1 L on slide (hw. 0.68) Italy: Buco del frate, 9.ii.36, L. Boldori leg., det., ded., coll. E.—1 L on slide (hw. 0.80) Italy:

Buco del frate, 1.iii.31, L. Boldori leg., det., ded., M.W.

Trechus pulchellus Putzeys? 1 L II (hw. 0·31) Germany: Glatzer Schneeberg, 23.vii.35, subalpine spring, F. Pax leg., ded., coll. E. 2435. Extremely similar: Paratrechus sylvaticus C. Bolivar, see Bolivar Pieltain, 1941, Ciencia, Mexico 2: 208.

Asaphidion flavipes L. 1 L III (hw. 0.84) Denmark: Ravneholm, 17.v.17, E. Rosenberg leg., det., ded., coll. E. 188.—1 L I on slide (hw. 0.39) viii.38, L. Boldori educ., ded., coll. E. Boldori (1939, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 71:98)

stresses certain differences between the larvae described by Böving and his own larvae of A. flavipes and points out that the pupa, obtained from a larva collected under the same conditions as Böving's specimen (though not necessarily originating from the same parents, see Rosenberg, 1911, Ent. Meddel. (2) 4:182), belongs to A. pallipes Duftschmid. The differences between Böving's and Boldori's larvae are, however, perhaps more those of stages than of species. Böving described a full-grown larva, whereas Boldori obtained only the first stage of flavipes. The dilated setae, described by Boldori, are very often a special character of this stage in beetle-larvae. The neck in Böving's figure, referred to by Boldori, is produced by the cervical groove, which in Bembidiini is developed as an impression, connected by a transverse dorsal groove with that of the other side. It is present in my L III, though not quite as striking as in Böving's figure. Of A. caraboides Schrank, Boldori described mainly

the first stage; it is distinguishable by the cerci.

Bembidion (Daniela) fasciolatum Duftschmid. 4 L I (hw. 0·40–0·42), 1 L II (hw. 0.63) Netolitzky educ., ded., coll. E.—B. (Peryphus) testaceum Duftschmid. 2 L I (hw. 0.35) Bucowina: Czernowitz, 29.vi.27, Netolitzky educ., ded., coll. E (fig. 24).—B. (P.) dalmatinum Dejean. 2 L I on slide (hw. 0·40-0·41) Netolitzky educ., ded., coll. E.—B. (P.) femoratum Sturm? 3 L I (hw. 0.45-0.48-0.49), 1 L II (hw. 0.61) on slides, Netolitzky educ., ded., coll. E. The larvae seem to belong to a larger species of c. 6.5 mm., and according to Prof. Netolitzky his culture of B. femoratum was mixed with another species while he was absent.—A good figure of the front margin of frontal piece, apparently of first-stage larvae, was given by Netolitzky (1926, Ent. Blätt. 22:118) for the following species: semipunctatum Donovan, starki Schaum, femoratum Sturm, fasciolatum Duftschmid, genei illigeri Netolitzky, biguttatum L. and dalmatinum Dejean.—B. (Cillenus) laterale Samouelle. 2 L (hw. 0.70) Denmark: Skallingen, vii.97, Jensen-Haarup leg., M.C. Cillenus is now generally regarded as one of the numerous subgenera of Bembidion, and the larvae seem to justify this view; they are characterised by subequal joints of the outer lobe (the apical joint inconspicuously shorter), the nasale rather strongly produced and truncate, with the front margin almost straight, minutely denticulate and angularly set off from adnasalia, and the long epicranial suture which is as long as the first antennal joint and the front margin of nasale.—B. spp. LIII, 2 on slide (hw. 0.89-0.95-1.01) Germany: Zeyern, viii.21, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 252.—1 L (hw. 0.73) Büsum, North-Sea, vi.21, C. Urban leg., ded., coll. E. 249.—1 L (hw. 0.84) Switzerland: San Bernardino, village, c. 2000 m., 17.viii.24, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 583.—3 L (hw. 0.98-1.02-1.05) Austria: Paalgraben, Styria, 20.vii.30, Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. 872.—1 L (hw. 0.42), 1 L (hw. 0.54), 8 L (hw. 0.87-0.98) Waidhofen on Ybbs, 15.viii-15.ix.20, Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. (probably several species).— 3 L (hw. 0.77-0.81-0.84) Stubaier Alp, in soc. B. bipunctatum v. nivale Heer and B. redtenbacheri Daniel, H. Janetschek leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1.03) Bucowina: Czernowitz, 7.vii.21, banks of Pruth, Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. 667.— 1 L (hw. 0.98) same data, 25.v., coll. E.—1 L (hw. 0.96) same data, 16.v.26, coll. E.—2 L (hw. 0.49), 1 L (hw. 0.77) same data, 27.v.21, coll. E.—1 L (hw. 0.91) Cooden Beach, Sussex, 19.vii.36, W. S. Bristowe leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1.01) Aviemore, vi-vii.34, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 0.52) France: Ile d'Yeu, Vendée, 2.viii.37, bord d'une mare, R. Paulian leg., M.P.-3 L (hw. 0.75-0.77-0.80) Spain: Sierra Nevada, 3100 m., petite lagune au pied du Mulhacer, 5.viii.34, A. Balachovsky leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 0.92) Morocco: High Atlas, Inri n'Ouaba, 2000 m., 9.ix.38, Paulian et Villiers leg., M.P.-1 L (hw. 0.87) Morocco: O. Tnuinène, viii.38, Paulian et Villiers leg., M.P.

Bembidion sp.? or genus indet. 2. 1 L (hw. 1.01) Sudan: Khartoum, Ch. Alluaud leg., M.P. The nasale is bidentate with the outer margin of the teeth parallel to the longitudinal axis of the body and the inner margin oblique-concave: it may also be described as broadly produced with parallel side-margins and broadly and rather strongly emarginate front margin. This formation has not otherwise been seen in this group, and the larva may, therefore, not belong to it. The second joint of the outer lobe is distinctly shorter than the first. The first antennal joint is slightly longer than the second and third, the first joint of the maxillary palpi longer than the other two combined. The abdominal tergites are not sclerotised, their setae are numerous, short, but strong, rather blunt, some of them obliquely directed forward. Epicranial suture short, other characters as in Bembidion and Asaphidion. This must be either a very isolated form of Bembidion or the representative of a special tribe, perhaps Melaenus, which may be supposed to have more or less similar characters.

Tachys (Mioptachys?) sp. 1 L I (hw. 0·22), 1 L III (hw. 0·38) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 10.ii.34, soil of wood, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 1671.—T. (Tachyta) nanus Gyllenhal. 1 L III on slide (hw. 0·54) Germany: Ganting, 29.vii.22, on Carpinus, K. W. Verhoeff leg., B.M (figs. 26, 44). Tachyta is now regarded as a subgenus of Tachys.—T. (Tachyta) umbrosus Motschulsky, see Gardner, 1938, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 3: 152.—T. (T.) sp. 1 L I (hw. 0·26) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 6.vii.34, under loose bark of Virola warburgi, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 1594.—T. (Tachyura) vivax Leconte. 1 exuv. III (hw. 0·43), 1 I. no locality, coll. Hamilton 462, M.W.—T. (T.) incurvus Say. 1 exuv. III (hw. 0·41), 1 I. no locality, coll. Hamilton 472, M.W.—T. (T.?) sp. 1 L III (hw. 0·56) France: Bormeo, Var, iii.37, R. Paulian leg., M.P. In this species the second joint of the outer lobe is hardly 1½ times as long as the first. The other characters are as in the preceding two species.—T. (T.) parvulus Dejean, see Cerruti, 1939, Mem. Soc. ent. ital. 17: 121.

Pogonus luridipennis Germar? 5 L II, 1 L II dry (hw. 0.94-1.02-1.08), 2 L III (hw. 1.40-1.50) Germany: Sülldorf, nr. Magdeburg, viii.21, on bank of salt-spring, C. Urban leg., ded., coll. E. 661 (det. ex syst., et magnitudine, figs. 6, 27). 1 L III (hw. 1.43) France: Château-neuf d'Ille-et-Vilaine, under decaying leaves, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 240.—P. spp. 1 L (hw. 1.19) Braunton, N. Devon, ix.29, K. G. Blair leg., Emd. det., B.M.—1 L (hw. 0.84) France: Chausey, Schanedes, 29.vii.36, île aux oiseaux, H. Bertrand leg., M.P.

Broscus cephalotes L. 3 LI (hw. 1.93-1.96-1.99) Braunton, N. Devon, ix.29, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L I (hw. 1.99) Central Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.— 1 LI (hw. 1.93), 1 LII (hw. 2.81) Heligoland: Düne, 22.viii.28, H. Dietze leg., ex coll. E., B.M.—2 L II (hw. 2.65) Germany: Gossa, nr. Leipzig, 1.x.24, in sand, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 1067.—1 L II (hw. 2.69) Böhlen, nr. Leipzig, 3.x.14, at recently killed hamster, coll. E. 1.-1 L II (hw. 2.58) Taucha, nr. Leipzig, 19.ix.21, in sand-pit under stone, F. Halbauer leg., ded., coll. E. 431.— 1 L III (hw. 3.7) Riesa on Elbe, 2.v.35, in garden-soil, W. Döhler leg., ded., coll. E. 2161.—3 LI (hw. 1.92-1.98-2.02) Heligoland, Düne and Harbour, 22.viii-28.viii.35, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 2385.—1 L I (hw. 1.92) Zeyern, c. 15.viii.21, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 350.—1 LI (hw. 1.92) Nürnberg-Ziegelsteine, 28. viii. 19 in soc. Harpalus rufus Brüggemann Stich leg., ded., coll. E. 194.—1 L I (hw. 1.85), 1 L II (hw. 2.50), 5 L III (hw. 3.6-3.68-3.8) Zibelle-Beinsdorf, nr. Rothenburg, Oberlausitz, 20-25.x.17, in soil of potato-field. coll. E. 117.—3 L I (hw. 1.74–1.84–1.92), 3 L II (hw. 2.55–2.68–2.83) Numburg, nr. Kelbra, 29.ix.35, on salty soil, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 2386.—B.

punctatus Dejean, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) Ent. 2:181, 185.—
B. sp. 1 L II (hw. 2:44) Algeria: Ravine de la Femme Sauvage, nr. Alger,

end of xii.92, P. Lesne leg., M.P.

Axonya championi Andrewes. 1 L III (hw. 1.47), 1 I. India, J. C. M. Gardner leg., det., ded., coll. E. 2360.—1 dissected exuv. III on slide (hw. c. 1.47) India: Asan R., 8.iv.30, J. C. M. Gardner leg., det., ded., coll. E. See Gardner, 1931, Indian Forest Rec. (Ent.) 16:92; 1936, loc. cit. (n.s.) 2:182.

Cnemacanthus desmaresti darwini Waterhouse? Dr. Carlos Bruch has sent me, together with the drawings reproduced as figs. 90-97, a very curious larva from the Pampas of the Argentine (hw. 5.1). Dr. Bruch obtained specimens of this larva repeatedly, but has been unable to breed the adult. From the present keys it would be identified as Brachynini, but the setae of the ligula (not, however, the ligula itself) seem to be present. The two claws would fit Pheropsophus, whereas the presence of cerci, a retinaculum etc. would exclude it from that genus. The larva is 28 mm, long though moderately contracted, and in combination with its rather stout build, would seem to be too large for the species of *Pheropsophus* occurring in Argentine. There is no other genus of known Argentinian Truncatipennes, with which its habitat, size and characters would agree, and Dr. Bruch may be right in referring it to Cnemacanthus desmaresti darwini Waterhouse, though all the important characters of Broscini are absent. However, the adult Broscini as a whole are most inconsistent in their characters, and I have discovered that in Cnemacanthus and its relatives even the paramera are as in Pterostichini. As the mandibular seta is also absent and in some species two (1+1 or 0+2) or three (1+2) supraorbital setae are present, Cnemacanthus approaches the Pterostichini very closely. In the present larva not too much weight should perhaps be laid on the reduction of the cerci, though this brings it into the truncatipenne series in the key. For the cerci are very liable to reduction and are by no means an ideal character for separating the truncatipenne and piliferous HARPALINAE. Even so, however, the larva shows no clear affinities to the Broscini, Pterostichini or any other group.

Deltomerus corax Peyerimhoff. 1 L II (hw. 1·2), 2 L III (hw. 1·88-2·18) Morocco: Haut Atlas, Tizi n'Tachdirt, 3200 m., 20.vi.38, R. Paulian and A. Villiers leg., det., M.P. See Paulian & Villiers, 1939, Rev. franç. Ent. 6:48;

the locality given in the description differs from that in the tube.

Diplous aterrimus Dejean. 1 exuv. III (hw. 1-8), 1 I. U.S.A.: Yellowstone National Park, pupa and larval exuvia found in mud-cell under a boulder, resting on a flat rock in bed of stream, at low water, 12.viii.91, Hubbard

leg., M.W.

Abacetus pars a. Two slides (J.C.M.G. 3101 and 3102), borrowed from Mr. Gardner some time ago, contain exuviae, from both of which Abacetus guttula Chaudoir was bred according to the labels. In one specimen only one claw is present, whereas in the other a conspicuous second claw, two-fifths the length of the main claw, is to be seen. In the first specimen the emargination of the nasale is narrower and deeper. As far as my experience goes, these cannot be one species and probably not closely related species, and Mr. Gardner has, therefore, not published a description of the larva of Abacetus guttula, though both specimens were hatched singly. Mr. H. E. Andrewes informs me that guttula is quite a typical Abacetus but rather variable. The genus Abacetus is perhaps not homogenous, for the only other species bred by Mr. Gardner, A. iricolor Andrewes, shows larval characters which are rather

different and which would include it in the Pterostichina. According to Mr. Andrewes iricolor is "hardly a typical species of Abacetus."

Caelostomus picipes McLeay. 1 L II on slide (hw. 0.75) J. C. M. Gardner leg., det. "by comparison," ded., in B.M. See Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest

Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:191.

Diceromerus orientalis Hope. 1 L III (hw. 1·8) J. C. M. Gardner leg., det., ded., B.M. I have some drawings which I have made from a specimen preserved in the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, and labelled Samsnig, Bengal, Balmand Singh leg., Nr. 1754, S 1515. The characters are identical. See Gardner, 1929, Indian Forest Rec. (Ent.) 14:107.

Cratocerus sulcatus Chaudoir? 1 L II? (hw. 0.59) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 27.vii.34, on rotting stump of banana-tree, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 1543. Very closely related to the Caelostomus-larva; Cratocerus is the genus nearest to the Drimostomina in Costa Rica, though

not actually belonging to the subtribe.

Sphodrus leucophthalmus L. 1 L I on slide (hw. 1·26) Italy: Cremona, 3.v.33, L. Boldori educ., ded., coll. E. See Boldori, 1934, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 66: 102.—1 L III (hw. 3·53) Italy: Roma, Schiödte, M.C., Emd. det. labelled "Acinopus", but certainly not belonging to the Harpalini. Nasale truncate, but obviously worn.—1 L III (hw. 3·23) Morocco: Agadir, ii.14, P. Pallary leg., M.P. Nasale straight in middle, with two very slight broad prominences on either side.

Pristonychus terricola Herbst. 2 L III (hw. 1·88-2·01) Germany: Göda, nr. Bautzen, Saxony, 1934, Feurich leg., ded., coll. E. 1458.—2 L III (hw. 2·06-2·19) France: Bougival, xii.29, in mushroom-cultures, L. Mesnil leg., ded., coll. E. and B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2·03) East Prussia, iii.33, in cellar with potatoes, H. Blunck leg., coll. E. 1097.—1 L III (hw. 2·06) Leipzig, Connewitzer Holz, 10.iii.12, A. Reichert leg., det., ded., coll. E. 179.—1 L II (hw. 1·37) 16.v.18, 1 L III (hw. 2·03) 5.vi.18, Denmark: Holte, Sjaelland, I. P.

Kryger leg., M.W. See Boldori 1934, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 66: 109.

Laemostenus (s.str.) complanatus Dejean. 1 L II (hw. 1·39), 1 exuv. III (hw. 2·14) U.S.A.: San Francisco, Calif., 22.ii.34, P. Ting leg., Van Dyke det. adult, M.W.—L. (Antisphodrus) schreibersi carinthiacus Müller. 1 L I (hw. 0·83) 1 L II (hw. 1·27) Austria: Warmbad Villach, Eggerloch, 20.ix.33, H. Strouhal leg., det., ded., coll. E. 1398; 3 L I (hw. 0·79–0·83–0·86) same data, c. 180 m., 11.ix.33, coll. E. 1400; 1 L III (hw. 1·89) same data, 5.ix.33, in rotten faeces, coll. E. 1399. See Strouhal, 1934, Mitt. Höhlen-Karstforsch. 1934: 80; 1935, loc. cit. 1935: 34.—L. (A.) boldorii Dodero. 1 L I (hw. 0·84) Italy: Nuvolento, Buco del Frate, 21.xii.30, C. Boldori leg., M.W.—3 L III (hw. 1·69–1·85–1·95) Italy: Paitone, Brescia, Lombardia, grotta Bug del Frat, 18.xi.24, L. Boldori leg., det., ded., coll. E. 2478. See Ghidini, 1931, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 63: 40.—L. (A.) mairei Peyerimhof. See Boldori, 1935, Bull. Soc. ent. France 40: 150.—L. (Ceuthosphodrus?) sp. 1 L (hw. 1·29) France: Grotte de Trouleat, Ht. Pyrén., 29.ix.31, under stones in dark part, G. de Kerville leg., M.P.

Calathus fuscipes Goeze. 2 L II (hw. 1·46-1·54), 4 L III (hw. 1·59-1·67-1·76), 1 L III about to pupate (hw. 1·61) Germany: Riesa on Elbe, mid v.35, in soil of garden, W. Döhler, coll. E. 1863 and B.M.; 1 exuv. III (hw. 1·65) same data, 18.iv.36, pupated 27.iv., 3 hatched 7.v.36; coll. E. 1801.—1 L II on slide (hw. c. 1·52) Pasing, nr. Munich, 7.v.24, in garden, K. W. Verhoeff leg., B.M.—C. fuscipes Goeze? 1 L II? (hw. 1·5) Windsor Forest, 14.iv.39, H. Donisthorpe leg., B.M.—1 L I (hw. 0·84) Germany: Kohren,

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Saxony, Stöckigt wood, 5.i.31, sifted, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 923 b.— 1 L II? (hw. 1.5) Schönau, nr. Leipzig, 17.i.32, sifted in sand-pit, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 918.—C. erratus Sahlberg. 1 LI (hw. 0.71) Denmark: Ballerup, ♀ found 25.viii.29, eggs deposited 1.ix., larva 27.ix., E. Rosenberg educ., det., ded., coll. E. 849. Egg-bursters keel-shaped.—C. micropterus Duftschmid? 1 L III? (hw. 1.07) Germany: Dreiannen-Hohne, Harz Mts., 24.ii.22, under bark of spruce, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 617.—C. kollari Putzeys, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:197.—C. spp. 1 L I (hw. 0.69) Germany: nr. Berlin, 3.x.36, under bark of Alnus, Otten leg., Korschefsky ded., coll. E. 2876. Egg-bursters spine-shaped.—3 L I (hw. 0.55-0.56-0.57) Walkenried, S. Harz Mts., 1.viii.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 214. Egg-bursters spine-shaped.—1 L (hw. 1-03) Berlin-Marienfelde, iv.35, in soil of field, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1726.—1 L (hw. 1.03) Gundorf, nr. Leipzig, 28.ii.22, coll. E. 650.—2 L (hw. 1.07) Leipzig, Zeppelin-Bridge, 1.i.20, coll. E. 295, 296.—1 L (hw. 1.05) Bonn on Rhein, 8.iii.37, in stomach of mole, Schaerffenberg leg., Emd. det., B.M.—1 L (hw. 0.96) nr. Wittenberge, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1723.—1 L (hw. 0.88) Berlin-Gross-Lichterfelde, 18.iv.36, from poor soil of meadow, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1795.— 1 L (hw. 0.73) Kohren, Saxony, Stöckigt Wood, 5.i.31, sifted, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 923a.-1 L (hw. 0.71) France: Maisons Laffitte, 7.ii.38, in gallery of mole, L. Levasseur leg., M.P.

Platyderus sp.? 1 LIII? (hw. 1·15) Algeria: S. Charles, Théry leg., M.P. This larva has characters of Agonum (inner lobe with apical seta), Feronia (membranous area of stipes maxillaris) and of the Calathus-group (pale tergites, rather short epicranial suture, small second joint of maxillary

palpi), it seems therefore probable that it is a species of *Platyderus*.

Odontonyx rotundatus Paykull. 1 L I on slide (hw. 0.53) C. Europe, vii., sifted from decaying spruce-needles, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 exuv. III (hw. 0.91), 1 I. Denmark: N. Sjaelland, Meinert leg., M.C.

Agonum (Anchomenus) ruficorne Goeze. 2 L III, 2 exuv. III (hw. 1.10-1·13-1·15) Denmark: Seeland, E. Rosenberg leg., M.W.—1 L III (hw. 1·12) Madeira: Riv. Gomes, 18.iv.29, B.M.-A. (Limodromus) assimile Paykull. 3 L III, 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.67-1.71-1.74) Denmark: Dyrehavn, nr. Copenhagen, 7.vii.08, W. Schlick leg., M.W.—? 1 LIII (hw. 1.71) Switzerland: Champéry, Wallis, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 1028.—A. (Agonum) moestum Duftschmid. 1 LIII on slide (hw. 1.22) Germany: Pasing, nr. Munich, Verhoeff, B.M.—? 1 L III (hw. 1.26) Britain, no locality, M. G. S. Perkins leg., B.M.—A. (A.) mülleri Herbst. 1 exuv. III on slide (dissected) Germany: Aubing, nr. Munich, bank of a pond, Verhoeff, B.M.—A. (A.) ericeti Panzer? 1 LI (hw. 0.50) E. Prussia, Zehlau-Bruch, 7.vi.13, sifted from Sphagnum, A. Dampf leg., E. Skwarra ded., coll. E. 739.—A. spp. 1 L (hw. 1·12) Aviemore, vi.-vii.34, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.-1 L (hw. 1·04) Braunton, N. Devon, vi.31, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1-22) Britain?, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1-21) Germany: Freiberg, Saxony, 29.viii.21, on damp bank under stone, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 242.—I L I (hw. 0.83) Dübener Heide, Pretzschau, 11.vii.20, in fallow soil, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 246.—2 L II (hw. 0.73-0.74), 2 L III (hw. 1.13-1.17) Austria: Waidhofen on Ybbs, 15.viii.-15.ix.20, F. Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E.-1 LIII? (hw. 1.62) Switzerland: San Bernardino Pass, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 584.— 1 L III? (hw. 1.62) San Bernardino village, M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 582.—6 L of different species and from various localities in France, M.P.— 1 L II or III (hw. 1.06) Morocco: Tachdirt, Ht. Atlas, 2500 m., 27.viii.37, Paulian et Villiers leg., M.P.

Orthotrichus indious Bates (see Gardner, 1931, Indian Forest Rec. (Ent.) 16:91).

Abacetus (pars b) iricolor Andrewes, see Gardner, loc. cit. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2: 192. It is difficult, from the known characters, to distinguish this larva from Feronia (see p. 64).

Genus indet. 3. 1 L II or III (hw. 2.79) French Indo-China, Vitalis de Salvaza 1917, M.P. Ex systemate, patria, magnitudine this can obviously

only be a genus of Trigonotomina or perhaps Morionina.

Abax ater Villers. 1 L III (hw. 3.00) Limpsfield Common, Ridlands Wood, Surrey, 7.xi.37, H. Oldroyd leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 3·14) England, B.M.— 1 L III dissected, on slide, C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L II on slide (hw. c. 2.09) Germany: Planegg, 7.v.21, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L II (hw. 1.95), 3 L III (hw. 2·72-2·80-2·90) Hannover, 20.vii.91, K. Jordan leg., B.M.—3 L III (hw. 2.87-3.01-3.16) Dübener Heide, Zadlitzbruch, 21.v.33, in trenches dug to trap Hylobius, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1101.—1 L III (hw. 2.87) Wüstegiersdorf, Silesia, 9.x.15, coll. E. 67.—1 L III (hw. 2.87) Zeyern, N. Bavaria, viii.21, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 250.—1 L III dry (hw. 2.76) Schkeuditz, nr. Leipzig, 22.vi.18, coll. E.; 1 L I dry (hw. 1.3) same data, 13.vii.18.—2 L II (hw. 1.87-2·13) Söllichau, Dübener Heide, 23.ix.24, under leaves, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 901.—1 L II (hw. 2·13) Grimma, Saxony, 1.vi.18, in soc. A. ater and parallelus, coll. E. 147.—1 L III (hw. 2.90) France: Château-neuf d'Ille-et-Vilaine, under leaves, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 236.—1 L III (hw. 2.90) Fontainebleau, iv., at base of tree, R. Paulian leg., M.P.—A. parallelus Duftschmid? 1 L II (hw. 1.53) Germany: Kösen on Saale, ix.19, coll. E. 442.

Molops piceus Panzer. 1 L II on slide (hw. 1.47) Germany: Planegg,

7.v.21, Verhoeff, B.M.

Evarthrus sigillatus Say. 1 L III, 1 exuv. III (hw. 2·34-2·42) U.S.A.: Washington, D.C., M.W.—E. (Eumolops) sodalis Leconte. 2 L III (hw. 2·20-2·34) U.S.A.: no locality, coll. Hamilton, M.W.

Trichosternus vigil White (difformipes Bates). 1 L II (hw. 2.37) New Zea-

land, 1931, G. V. Hudson leg., B.M.

Feronia (Steropus) globosa Fabricius? 1 L III (hw. 2·51) Morocco: Boubana, 3.iii., Buchet leg., M.P. Cervical groove entirely absent; median part of clypeus forming a very short and broad, bluntly triangular prominence, not at all emarginate in middle. In spite of the rather great differences between this larva and that of madida it can be no other species, as the adults of the other North African Pterostichini do not appreciably exceed 13 mm., except for Percus lineatus Solier, which, however, does not reach Morocco.-F. (S.) madida Fabricius. 1 L I (hw. 1.25) Kew, Surrey, 25.iii.40, in garden, coll. E. 2987; all the numerous other larvae of F. madida found on that date and at other times in spring, which were not preserved, were L III.-1 exuv. III (hw. 2.44) Britain, no locality, H. Main leg., adult hatched 23.v.37, B.M.— 1 L III (hw. 2.35) London, B.M.-3 L III (hw. 2.30-2.38-2.48) Britain, iv.01. sent from Board of Agriculture, B.M.—9 L III (hw. 2.23-2.36-2.55) Britain, together with two L F. melanaria, B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2.37) St. Ives, Cornwall, K. Frazier leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2.51) Fulham, London, B.M.— 2 L III (hw. 2·48-2·51) England, B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2·48) Hove, v.32, Miss B. Hopkins leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2.55) near Worthing, Miss F. Collins leg., B.M.—1 L I (hw. 1·22), 8 L II (hw. 1·50–1·68–1·84), 6 L III (hw. 2·27–2·43–2·57) France: Château-neuf d'Ille-et-Vilaine, K. Dorn leg., det. ex soc. imag., ded., coll. E. 238 (see Emden, 1936, Bull. Mus. R. Hist. nat. Belg. 12 (11): 2; Raynaud, 1936, Misc. ent. 37: (44)).-1 LIII (hw. 2.30) Valenciennes Nord, iii.37, P. Beck leg., M.P.—1 L II (hw. 1.64) Vienne, xi.37, F. Pierre leg., M.P.

Cervical groove and keel present; nasale more or less emarginate, thus usually forming two slight, rounded lobes.—?1 LIII (hw. 2.58) Basses Pyrénées, Ahusquy, grotte d'Istaourdy, viii.06, P. Nadar leg., M.P.—?1 L II (hw. 1.84), 2 L III, 1 exuv. III (hw. 2·3-2·44-2·63), 1 P J, same locality, viii.38, Paulian, Lepesme et Villiers leg., M.P. Last ventrite of 3 P with a longitudinal keel over its entire length. This character is found in the adult of F. (S.) ghilianii Putzeys, but so far as I know, this species does not occur on the French side of the Pyrenees. The pupa may be malformed, or the transverse keel of the adult may be a longitudinal one in the pupa.—F. (Feronia s.str.) lucublanda Say. 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.66) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 577, M.W., together with 1 L F. muta and 1 L F. stygica?—1 L II (hw. 1.39) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 573, M.W. together with 2 L F. muta.—2 L II (hw. 1.29-1.36) Milwaukee, Wisc., 22.viii.37, Harry van Emden leg., coll. E. 2980 (fig. 23).—F. (F.) cuprea L., see Raynaud, 1936, Misc. ent. 37: (53).-F. (F.) coerulescens L., see Raynaud, 1937, loc. cit. 38: (57).—F. (F.) spp. 1 L III (hw. 1.88) Germany: Dübener Heide, Pretzschau, 11.vii.20, in fallow soil, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 244.—1 L III (hw. 2·13) Abtshagen, 5.x.25, H. Blunck leg., ded., coll. E. 935.—1 L III (hw. 1·95) Dübener Heide, 5.viii.23, debris at bank in wood, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 2400.—F. (F.) gebleri Dejean? 2 L III (hw. 2.62-2.90) Peking, mountains, A. David leg., M.P.—F. (Pseudorthomus?) unctulata Duftschmid? 1 L II (hw. 0.84) Glatzer Schneeberg, Silesia, 30.vii.36, under decaying needles of spruce above Schnelle-stream, F. Pax leg., ded., coll. E. 2455. This larva is rather puzzling, the maxillae are without a membranous area near base of ventral surface, but the seta of the outer lobe is very distinctly lateral. The pigmented spots of the second row of ocelli are smaller, the epicranial suture longer than the fourth antennal joint, the cervical groove strongly produced forward on ventro-lateral surface. Ex loco et magnitudine it is very probable that this is unctulatus.—F. (Parargutor) lustrans Leconte. 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.78) U.S.A.: Tanforan, Calif., 30.vi.34, pupal and larval skin in mud-cell, P. Ting leg., ded., Van Dyke det. adult, M.W.—F. (Refonia) superciliosa Say. 6 L III (hw. 1.99-2.06-2.2) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 59-64, M.W.—F. (Omaseus) melanaria Illiger. 1 L II (hw. 1.99), 2 L III (hw. 2.62) Britain, together with 9 L madida, B.M.— 1 L II (hw. 1.71) Britain, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2.58) England "larva of Pterostichus madidus," Emd. det., B.M.—1 L III, 2 exuv. III (hw. 2.37-2.44-2.55) France: Versailles, i.32, L. Mesnil leg., ded., adult hatched 22.iii., coll. E. 903, see Emden, 1936, Bull. Mus. R. Hist. nat. Belg. 12 (11): 2.— 1 L II (hw. 1.88) Aurigny, Mare de la Canière Manny, 6.ix.36, H. Bertrand leg., M.P.—?1 L II (hw. 1·67) Lampaul-Plouarzel, Finistère, 14.vii.37, under stones on dunes, M.P.—1 LIII (2.76) Germany: Wüstegiersdorf, Silesia, 15.iv.17, coll. E. 88.—1 L III (hw. 2.48) Harth-wood, S. of Leipzig, 3.iv.21, in root of Lappa, attacking caterpillars of Hepialus humuli L., M. Müller leg., ded., coll. E. 401.—1 L II (hw. 1.74) Leissling, nr. Weissenfels, E. Thurin., 11.ix.21, in nest of hamster, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 198.-F. sp. nr. melanaria Illiger? 1 L III (hw. 2.34) Caucasus, nr. Maltchik, gouv. Tarek. Bezenghi Tarnogradsky leg., M.P.—F. (Bothriopterus) oblongopunctata Fabricius. 1 L I (hw. 0.80) Denmark: Jägerspris, hatched from egg 25.vi.28, Rosenberg educ., ded., coll. E. 779.—1 exuv. III dissected, on slide C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—F. (Lyperosomus) aterrima Dejean, see Raynaud, 1936, Misc. ent. 37: (43).—F. (Euferonia) stygica Say. 1 L III, 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.95-2.09), 1 I. U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 298, M.W.—1 L II? (hw. 1.73) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 577, together with 1 L F. lucublanda and 1 L F. muta, M.W.—F. (Argutor) diligens Sturm? 1 L III (hw. 1.08) Germany: Grosser Kranichsee, W. Erz-

gebirge, 18.vi.29, sifted from Sphagnum, coll. E. 1333, see Emden, 1932, Col. Rundsch. 18: 148.—1 LIII (hw. 0.87) same data, 4.vii.29, coll. E. 957.— 1 L I (hw. 0.44) Silesia, marsh on the Puhu, 27.v.34, K. Schubert leg., ded., coll. E. 1385.—1 LI (hw. 0.44), 2 LIII (hw. 0.87-0.91) Zehlau-Bruch, E. Prussia, 10.vii.21, sifted from Sphagnum, A. Dampf leg., E. Skwarra ded., coll. E. 738, see Emden and Emden, 1929, Schrift. phys.-ökon. Ges. Königsb. 66 (2): 276.—1 LI (hw. 0.42) Glatzer Schneeberg, Puhu, marshy meadow nr. Heudorf, 23.vii.35, F. Pax leg., ded., coll. E. 2434.—F. (Pseudomaseus) corvina Dejean. 1 exuv. II (hw. 1.29), 3 L III (hw. 1.74-1.85-1.92) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 542-545, M.W. Nasale very similar to that of melanaria.—F. (Pseudomaseus) nigrita F. 1 L III (hw. 1.64) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.— 1 L III on slide (hw. 1.85) Germany: Aubing, 25.vi.21, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 exuv. III, dissected, on slide same data, 8.ix.20, B.M. The ligula has two setae, although Raynaud (1936, Misc. ent. 37: (41)) describes the ligula of nigrita, aterrima, coerulescens and cuprea as having only one seta. In my opinion, this character needs confirmation, as I have not seen it in the material I have studied; the two setae are often very closely adjacent, especially in sbg. Poecilus.—F. (P.) nigrita Fabricius? 1 L III (hw. 1.92) Windsor Forest, 29.ix.36, H. Donisthorpe leg., ded., B.M.—F. nigrita Fabricius? or gracilis Dejean? 2 LI (hw. 0.66) Trefriw, Carnarvonshire, N. Wales, 6.vi.41, J. Balfour-Browne leg., ded., B.M.—F. (Bothriopterus, Pseudomaseus etc.) spp. 2 L I (hw. 1.23-1.33), 1 L II (hw. 1.92) Walkenried, S. Harz Mts., 1.viii.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 203, 205.—2 L (hw. 2·09-2·2) Zeyern, 16-17.iv.22, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 855.—1 L (hw. 1.40) Ueckeritz, Usedom, 5.vii.36, from cow-dung, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 2372.—1 L (hw. 1.28) Doberschützer Moor, nr. Eilenburg, 13.vii.22, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 1070.— 1 L (hw. 1.5) Doberschützer Moor nr. Eilenburg, 1.vii.18, from Sphagnum, coll. E. 161.—1 LIII? (hw. 1.88) Eulengebirge, Hohe Eule, 19.v.18, coll. E. 143.—1 L I (hw. 0.80), 1 L II (hw. 1.15) Doberschützer Moor nr. Eilenburg, 1.vii.18, from Sphagnum, coll. E. 162-3.—1 L (hw. 1.99) Zeschwitz S. of Leipzig, 27.vi.15, on road, coll. E. 63. Epicranial suture practically absent.—1 L I (hw. 0.64) France: Bonneuil, S.-O., L. Levasseur leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 2.06) Marly, S.-et-O., 18.x.37, F. Pierre leg., M.P.-1 L (hw. 2.72) Fontainebleau, iv., R. Paulian leg., M.P.—2 L (hw. 1.78-1.95) Switzerland: Albrun-Pass, Binnental, 2400 m., M. Bänninger leg., ded., coll. E. 870.-F. (Pterostichus) multipunctata Dejean. 2 L I (hw. 1·10-1·12) Italy: Campiglio, Trento, vii.33, L. Boldori leg., det., ded., coll. E. 1919. See Boldori, 1933, Studi Trentini Sci. nat. 14: 222; Raynaud, 1936, Misc. ent. 37: (51).—F. (P.) femorata Dejean, see Raynaud, loc. cit.: (48).—F. (P.) dufouri Dejean, see Raynaud, loc. cit.: (49).—F. (P.) fossulata welensi Drapiez. 1 L III (hw. 2.97) S. Bucowina: Summit of Mt. Rareu, Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. 2648.—F. (Steropus) aethiops Panzer. 1 L II, dissected, on slide (hw. c. 1.47) Germany: Riessersee, 17.ix.20, under bark of spruce, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L III dissected on slide (hw. c. 2.5), C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—F. (Dysidius) muta Say. 1 L I, head on slide, 1 L I (hw. 1·22-1·29) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 573, M.W., together with 1 L F. lucublanda.—1 L II (hw. 1.60) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 577, together with 1 L F. lucublanda and 1 L F. stygica?, M.W. -- F. (Pterostichus etc.) spp. 1 L II (hw. 1-34), 1 L III (hw. 1-95) Austria: Totengebirge, 27.vii.32, Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. 1008.—1 L I (hw. 0.94), 1 L II (hw. 1.43) France: Col de la Cayolle, Alp. mar., 23.viii.34, R. Jeannel leg., M.P.-1 L (hw. 1.81) Aix-les-Thermes, Ariège, A. Dolfus, M.P.—1 L (hw. 1.74) Switzerland: Champéry sous la Dent, Valais, 7.viii.37, Méquignon leg., M.P.—F. (Pterostichus) melas Creutzer. 1 exuv., dissected, on slide, C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—F. (Pterostichus) cristata Dufour? 1 L II (hw. 1·8) Belgium: Yvoz-Ramet, Caverne aux Végétations, 5.xi.33, R. Leruth leg., Mus. R. Hist. nat. Belg.; 1 L III (hw. 2·5) (Grande Caverne de Fond-de-Forêt (caverne gauche), 1.v.32, at entrance under stones, R. Leruth leg., ded., coll. E. 1917, see Emden, 1936, Bull. Mus. R. Hist. nat. Belg. 12 (11): 1.—F. (Pterostichus) spp. 1 L (hw. 1·57) France?, M.P.—1 L (hw. 2·44) Poland: Tatra Mts., Five Lakes Valley, 5.vii.32, D. Aubertin and E. Trewavas leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 0·68) Britain?, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1·92) Germany: Gross-Baum, Labiau, E. Prussia, xii.35, under mossy stones in mixed wood, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1760.—2 L (hw. 2·16-2·28) Switzerland: Faulhorn, Berner Alps, M. Bänninger leg., coll. E. 867.—1 L (2·30) Dôle, Jura, M. Bänninger leg., coll. E. 1136.—1 L (hw. 1·72) Bucowina: Czernowitz, 7.vii.21, banks of river Pruth, F. Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. 666.—F. (Abacidus) permunda Say. 1 L III, 1 exuv. III (hw. 1·57-1·67), 1 I., U.S.A.: coll. Hamilton 164, M.W.—2 L I (hw. 0·84—0·91) Milwaukee, Wisc., 8—9.vi.35, Harry van Emden leg., ded., coll. E. 2489.

Zabrus tenebrioides Goeze. 6 L I newly hatched (hw. (0.94) 1.17-1.20-1.26) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.; 1 L I strongly pressed, on slide (hw. 1.43) 1.ix.22, Verhoeff, B.M. (fig. 31).—1 L I dry (hw. 1.12), 1 L II (hw. 1.61) Germany: Munzig, nr. Meissen, Saxony, 6.i.19, W. Zumpe leg., ded., coll. E. 175, 176.—8 L II (hw. 1.71-1.78-1.88), 16 L III (hw. 2.51-2.72-2.86) nr. Halle on Saale, 1930, in grain-fields, K. R. Müller leg., ded., coll. E. 818 and B.M.—5 L III (hw. 2.51-2.76-2.86) Kunnersdorf, nr. Leipzig, University-farm, coll. E. 864.—Z. (Pelor) blapoides Creutzer, see Znoiko, 1935, Rev. Ent. URSS. 25: 232.—Z. (Iberozabrus) obesus Dejean, see Raynaud, 1937, Misc. ent. 38: (66). These three species without cervical groove and keel.—Z. (Macarozabrus) crassus Dejean? 1 L III (hw. 3.07) Tenerife, C. Alluaud leg., M.P. Cervical groove and keel

present. Cerci moderately short.

Amara (Percosia) obesa Say. 10 L III (hw. 1.95-2.13-2.29), 3 P. U.S.A.: Morristown, Rice Co., Minn., S. H. Henry leg., M.W.—A. (P.) equestris Herbst. 1 L II, 1 L II dry (hw. 1.60-1.61) Germany: Röhnberg, nr. Gotha, Thuring., 20.x.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 201.—1 L II (hw. 1.54) Zeyern, 14.iv.22, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 485.—1 L II (hw. 1-43) Schönau, nr. Leipzig, 12.iii.32, in sand-pit, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1023. See Znoiko, 1929, Plant Prot. 6:335.—A. (P.) sp. Russia: Baikal Region, Mission Paul Labbé leg., M.P.—A. (Cyrtonotus) aulica Panzer. 2 L I (hw. 1.39-1.46) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.; 1 L I on slide (hw. 1.48), same data, 28.ix.23; 1 L I (hw. 1.58) same data, 30.ix.20.—2 L III (hw. 2·48-2·59) Belgium: Joudreville, 24.xii.16 (adult collected 28.xii.), K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 81-82.—1 L III (hw. 2.7) Germany: Wüstegiersdorf, Silesia, 5.iv.17, coll. E. 86.—1 L I (hw. 1.5) Crossen, 17. viii.24, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 1112.—A. (C.) convexiuscula Marsham? 1 L III (hw. 2.06) Sülldorf, nr. Magdeburg, viii.21, C. Urban leg., ded., coll. E. 660.—A. (C.) gigantea Motschulsky? 1 L III (hw. 4.6) China: Peking, Mountains, A. David leg., M.P. The cervical groove is bent forward at sidemargin of head and extends forward in straight direction almost to the ocelli.— A. (Amara s.str.) similata Gyllenhal. 3 L I, 1 L I on slide (hw. 0.68-0.69) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L III, 1 exuv. III on slides (hw. c. 1.26) Germany: Aubing, 6.viii.21, at pond, Verhoeff, B.M.—A. (A.) aenea Degeer, see Boldori, 1935, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 67: 150; Branchini, 1938, Boll. Zool. Torino 9:215.—A. (A.) spp. 3 L (hw. 1·13) S. Kensington, 10.viii.34, Turpin leg., B.M.—1 LI (hw. 0.64) 2 LII (hw. 0.94), 4 LIII (hw. 1.26-1.31-1.41) Germany: Dubener Heide, nr. Eilenburg, 11.vii.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll.

E. 243.—1 L (hw. 1·16) same data, obviously a different species.—4 L (hw. 1.29-1.34-1.39) Gundorf, nr. Leipzig, 28.ii.27, in flood refuse, coll. E. 589.— 2 L II (hw. 0.83), 1 L III (hw. 1.16) Bienitz, nr. Leipzig, 29.v.36, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 2667-8.—1 L II (hw. 1.43), 1 L III (hw. 1.88) Leipzig-Gross-Zschocher, 13.iii.33, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1081.—3 L (hw. 1.31-1.37) Gundorf, nr. Leipzig, 28.ii.22, in flood refuse, coll. E. 649.—1 L (hw. 1.91) Zwenkau, nr. Leipzig, 2.vi.15, coll. E. 196.—I L II (hw. 1·28), 1 L III (hw. 1·88) Naumburg on Saale, 10.ii.21, H. Maertens leg., ded., coll. E. 409.—1 L (hw. 0.97) Walkenried, S. Harz Mts., 1.viii.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 215.— 1 L (hw. 0.66) France: Ile d'Yeu, Vendée, 12.vii.37, under dung-heap, R. Paulian leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 1-15) Plouarzel, Finistère, dunes of Portévigné. 17. viii.37, G. Lemasne leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 1-19) Benhou, 2.ix.36, H. Bertrand leg., M.P.—2 L I (hw. 0.73-0.78) Italy: Ischia, Neapel, O. Michalk leg., coll. E. 1946.—2 LI (hw. 0.9-0.98) Labrador: Akpatok Is., B.M.—A. (Celia) musculus Say. 1 exuv. III, 2 L III (hw. 1·0-1·2), 1 P., U.S.A.: Havre de Grace, Md., 22.iv.36, W. H. Anderson leg., M.W.—A. (C.) bifrons Gyllenhal. 5 exuv. III, 8 L III (hw. 1.05-1.11-1.20) Germany: Riesa on Elbe, iv.-v.36, in soil of garden, W. Döhler leg., ded., Emden educ., coll. E. 1847.—A. (C.) ingenua Duftschmid. 1 exuv. I on slides (hw. c. 1·125), 1 exuv. II (last exuvia of this larva, hw. 1.95) pregnant Q from Gundorf, nr. Leipzig, 7.iii.22, eggs deposited 9.iii,; hatched 27.iii.; 1st exuvia shed 5.iv.; pupated 21.iv. During incubation the longitudinal diameter of the eggs increased by one-seventh to one-fifth, the transverse diameter by one-quarter to one-third, the head-width of the newly-hatched larva was one-sixteenth wider than the width of the newly deposited egg, coll. E. 681.—A. (C.) quenseli Schönherr? 1 L III (hw. 1.22) Austria: Stubaier Alps, Alpein, together with adults of A. quenseli, H. Janetschek leg., ded., B.M. Nasale and cervical groove as in sbg. Percosia.— A. (C.) spp. 2 L I (hw. 0.88) Germany: Bienitz, nr. Leipzig, 18.iii.31, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 907.—2 L (hw. 1·10-1·12) Berlin-Marienfelde, iv.37, from soil of field, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 2540.—A. (Bradytus) consularis Duftschmid. 3 L I (hw. 0.9-0.94) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M. (fig. 67). Eggbursters, see Boldori, 1935, Boll. Soc. ent. ital. 67:150.-1 LIII (hw. 1.7) Beer, S. Devon, iv.30, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—A. (B.) fulva DeGeer. 4 L III, 3 exuv. III (hw. $1\cdot6-1\cdot71-1\cdot8$), one of them somewhat doubtful, as head with an angle as in *Percosia*, but other characters of fulva: Germany: Riesa on Elbe, iv.-v.36, in soil of garden, W. Döhler leg., adults bred, coll. E. 1848 (fig. 10). Egg-bursters, see Boldori, loc. cit. - ?1 L II (hw. 1.31), 6 L III (hw. 1.67-1.78-1.84) Bucowina: Czernowitz, 8.xi.36, Netolitzky leg., ded., coll. E. 2337.— A. (B.) apricaria Paykull. 5 exuv. III, 40 L III (1.27-1.38-1.43) Germany: Riesa on Elbe, iv.-v.36, in soil of garden, W. Döhler leg., ded., adults bred, coll. E. 1846.—1 LIII, 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.37), 1 P. same data, 12-17.iv.36, coll. E. 2510.—A. (B.) batesi Csiki, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:190. The chaetotaxy of the last ventrite is not known, but the cervical groove is present in this species.—A. (B.) exarata Dejean. 1 exuv. III, 1 LIII (hw. 1.69-1.76), 1 & I., U.S.A.: Urbana, Ill., coll. Hamilton, M.W.— A. ("Leiocnemis") avida Say. 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.73), 1 Q I., U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 134, M.W.—10 L III "Amara avida or exarata," coll. Hamilton 133-144, M.W. I have not been able to find a difference, certainly not one of subgeneric importance, between the exuviae of exarata and avida. The only male of the latter in my possession has distinct, fine, short hairs on the interior surface of the hind tibiae. Though these are not as dense as in the European species of Bradytus, the hind tibiae are nevertheless those of that subgenus. having a longitudinal strip of fine, dense pubescence on the inner (ventral in morphological sense) surface between the dorsal (postero-ventral) row of rather distant setulae and the ventral (antero-ventral) row of a few spinulose setae, whereas the tibiae of *Leiocnemis* are perfectly bare between these two rows of setulae. The only North American *Amara*, which has so far been regarded as a *Leiocnemis*, is therefore a *Bradytus*, and the extreme similarity of its larvae and those of the latter subgenus is explained very naturally.

Glyptus sculptilis Brullé, see Wasmann, 1902, Zool. Jahrb. (Syst.) 17:147.—Dimmock and Knab, 1904, Springfield Mus. nat. Hist. Bull. 1:1.

Orthogonius horni Wasmann. 2 L III cotypes (hw. 1-88) Ceylon, W. Horn leg., Mus. Dahlem ded., coll. E. 173, 174. Species founded on larva: Wasmann, 1902, Zool. Jahrb. (Syst.) 17:144.—O. schaumi Chaudoir. 4 L III (hw. 1-92-1-97-2-06) India: Coimbatore, 20.xii.28, feeding on young termites, M.S.K. leg., B.M. See Wasmann, loc. cit.: 142.—O. termiticola Wasmann, see Wasmann, loc. cit.: 145.—O. assmuthi Wasmann. 1 L III (hw. 1-81) no locality, H. E. Andrewes ded., B.M. (fig. 7).—O. duplicatus Wiedemann, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2: 184.—O. spp. 1 L (hw. 2-2) Chilla, 30.xii.31, with Termes obesus Rambur, B.M.—2 L (hw. 2-02-2-09) Assam: Attabarrie Tea Estate, B. Hughes Hullett leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1-74) same data, a different species, B.M.—1 L (hw. 2-14) N. Angola: Bavaria Farm, Jos. Eberl leg., coll. E. 1161.

Amblystomus quadriguttatus Motschulsky, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest

Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:189.

Dicherotrichus pubescens Paykull. 2 L I (hw. 0·71-0·73), 13 L III? (hw. 0·98-1·06-1·13) Denmark: Vesterfälden, 3.ix.95, M.C.—1 L I (hw. 0·73), 2 L III? (hw. 1·07-1·13) Copenhagen, Vesterfälden, 23.x.95, W. Schlick leg., Rosenberg ded., coll. E. 934.—4 L III? (hw. 0·96-0·99-1·01) G. Britain: Aberlady, 3.v.33, surface of marsh, B.M.—1 L III? (hw. 0·98), 5 P., Germany: Borkum, v.37, in damp mound of earth, together with Bledius, Struve leg., Korschefsky ded., coll. E. 2878.

Anisotarsus sayi Blatchley. 35 L III (hw. 1.43-1.54-1.65) U.S.A., coll.

Hamilton, M.W.

Trichopselaphus subiridescens Chaudoir? 1 L III (hw. 1.37) Brazil: Sta. Catharina, Nova Teutonia, F. Plaumann leg., ded. The adult Harpalini collected by Herr Plaumann, which I have identified, belong to the genera Polpochila, Notiobia, Anisotarsus, Trichopselaphus, Pelmatellus, Selenophorus (incl. Athrostictus), Gynandropus, and Bradycellus. The second and third of these genera will probably be more closely related to the North American Anisotarsus sayi, Polpochila may be expected to be more isolated, Selenophorus, Gynandropus and Bradycellus to have no anterior keel on the tergites, and the species of Pelmatellus found in Sta. Catharina (like those of Bradycellus) to have a smaller head-width.

Anisodactylus binotatus Fabricius. 1 L II on slide (hw. c. 1·67), 1 L III (hw. 2·13) Germany: Aubing, at pond, Verhoeff, B.M.—A. poeciloides Stephens? 1 L III (hw. 1·91) Sülldorf, nr. Magdeburg, 18.viii.23 or 21.viii.21, C. Urban leg., ded., coll. E. 1505.—A. spp. 1 L (hw. 2·13) France: Ile d'Yeu, Vendée, R. Paulian leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 1·95) S. Abyssinia: Hicka, 2.iv.04, M. de Rothschild leg., M.P.

Amphasia interstitialis Say. 2 L III (hw. 1-8-1-82), 8 exuv. III (hw. 1-65-

1.72-1.78), 9 P. U.S.A.: Ithaca, N.Y., 8.ix.17, Hamilton leg., M.W.

Trichocellus placidus Gyllenhal, see Kemner, 1913, Ark. Zool. 8 (13B): 15. Plate 1, fig. 4 seems to indicate that the tergites are as in the Anisodactylus-

group, the distance between the anterior marginal line and the anterior row of setae being much smaller than the width of the praetergum would be. The

latter, thus, has evidently not been drawn by Kemner.

Diachromus germanus L.? (or Trichotichnus laevicollis Duftschmid?). 3 L I (hw. 0.99-1.01), 1 L II (hw. 1.24) Germany: Walkenried, S. Harz Mts., 1.viii.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 211, 216. Of the genera of Harpalini occurring in the Harz Mts. Anthracus, Bradycellus, Parophonus, Trichotichnus, and Diachromus are unknown, and only the last three genera would fit the larvae by their size. Trichotichnus is the most common one of these genera in mountainous parts of Central Europe and has actually been found near Walkenried (Rapp, 1933, Käf. Thüringens 1:85), but Diachromus would better fit the size and the formation of the tergites of the larvae, as it belongs to Anisodactylina. The head of the first stage has been figured (Emden, 1925, Z. wiss. Zool. 126:628, fig. 9).

Barysomus? sp. 1 LI (hw. 1.39) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 31.viii.36, at fruit [obviously fallen] of Ficus glabrata, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 2971. Though there is as a rule no correlation between adult and larval characters in beetles, such a correlation seems to exist in the case of the emarginate clypeus of the Licinini and Amblystomus, and it may, therefore, be supposed that the present larva belongs to a genus of Harpalini with emarginate clypeus. The only two genera with this character, found in Costa Rica, are Barysomus and Amblygnathus, the former being much more common.

Euryderus zabroides Leconte. 1 exuv. III (hw. 4·1), 1 I., U.S.A.: Bangs, Tex., 26.x.37, Wm. H. Anderson leg., M.W.—1 L III (hw. 3·5) Bangs, Tex., 18.viii.37, L. O. Christenson leg., C-3277, M.W.—1 L II (hw. 2·14) Tucson, Ariz., Hubbard leg., M.W., labelled Cratocara (Polpochila) capitata? The larva is only very slightly different from the others, the nasale being rounded and somewhat projecting with two teeth on either side of the curvature, whereas in the other two it is truncate with a very slight emargination in middle and 1–2 blunt teeth at outer end. These differences are certainly not of generic importance, but may partly be due to the different stage, and partly to the front margin being worn in larvae about to pupate. Casey has described the form from Arizona as arizonicus Casey, but the differences from zabroides seem to be only slight. The deviations in the nasale of the larva may, therefore, partly be those of a subspecies.

Cratacanthus dubius Beauvois. 1 exuv. III (hw. 2.51), 1 I. U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 203, M.W.—1 L III (hw. 2.48) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 202, M.W.

Harpalus (Ophonus) puncticollis Paykull. 1 L I (hw. 1·13) Verhoeff educ., Reichert ded., coll. E. 516.—1 L I on slide (hw. 1·19) Germany: Pasing, nr. Munich, 15.viii.22, Verhoeff, B.M.—3 L I (hw. 1·08-1·12-1·15) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M. There is little doubt that these larvae were bred, and they probably belong to one breeding experiment. Several species, formerly identified as puncticollis, have been separated since these larvae were bred, but as the adults are no longer available, they can only be ascribed to the puncticollisgroup.—H. (O.) azureus Fabricius. 1 L II (hw. 1·47) Nördlingen, 2.vi.23, under thistle, Verhoeff, B.M.—H. (O.) stictus Stephens. 3 L I (hw. 1·28-1·29-1·31), 4 L II (hw. 1·65-1·75-1·84), 4 L III (hw. 2·40-2·49-2·63) France: Mogeville nr. Verdun, 18.ix.17, in soil of old shell-craters in soc. imag., K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 153-7. Described as larva of O. diffinis Dejean by me (1920, Arch. Naturges. 84 (A) (10): 150).—1 L II on slide (hw. 1·95) Verdun, 18.ix., Verhoeff, B.M. (labelled O. diffinis, obviously given to Dr. V. by me).—

H. (O.) spp. 3 L (hw. 1.46-1.54-1.58) Berlin, iv.37, from soil of a field, Korschefsky leg., coll. E. 2539.—2 L (2·37-2·41) Switzerland: Denens s. Morges, Canton Vaud, v.37, attacking roots of vine, P. Bovey ded., B.M.— H. (Pseudophonus) rufipes Degeer (pubescens Müller). 1 LIII (hw. 3-11) Britain, reported destroying potatoes, B.M.—3 LI (hw. 1.85-2.08-2.30) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—3 L I, 1 exuv. I (hw. 2·01-2·10-2·18), 3 L II (hw. 2·4-2·48-2·59), 9 L III (hw. 2·83-2·92-3·01) Germany: Riesa on Elbe, iv.35.v.36, in soil of garden, W. Döhler leg., ded., coll. E. 1850.—1 L I (hw. 2.03) same data, x.36, coll. E. 2493.—2 L II (hw. 2.85-2.89) same data, 12-17.iv.36, coll. E. 2511.—1 exuv. I (hw. 2.18) Leipzig, Burgaue, 25.x.23, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E.-1 L II (hw. 2.78) Leipzig-Klein-Zschocher, 6.xi.34, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1392.—1 L I, head on slide (hw. 2.36) K. W. Verhoeff educ., ded., coll. E. 200.—1 L I (hw. 2·1) K. W. Verhoeff educ., Reichert ded., coll. E. 517. See Znoiko, 1929, Plant Prot. 6:335; 1935, Rev. Ent. U.R.S.S. 25: 235.—H. (Pardileus) calceatus Duftschmid. 1 L I (hw. 1.54) Germany: Berlin-Marienfelde, in soil of field, iv.35, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1725. See Znoiko, 1935, Rev. Ent. U.R.S.S. 25:235.-H. (P.) indicus Bates, see Gardner, 1938, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 3: 151.—H. (P.) compar Leconte? 1 L III (hw. 3.0) U.S.A.: Milwaukee, H. van Emden leg., ded., coll. E. 1347.— H. (Harpalus).—a. Mandible with auxiliary tooth: H. (H.) rufitars is Duftschmid. 1 L I on slide (hw. 1.22) Germany: Pasing, nr. Munich, vi.23, K. W. Verhoeff, B.M.—H. (H.) rubripes Duftschmid. 1 L I on slide (hw. c. 1·19) C. Europe, 16.vi.22, Verhoeff, B.M.—?1 L III (hw. 2.09) Britain?, B.M.—?1 L I (hw. 1.12) St. Merryn, vii.25, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—H. (H.) spp. 1 L II (hw. 1.41), 4 L III (hw. 1.76-1.83-1.88) U.S.A., coll. Hamilton 202, 207, M.W.— 2 L II (hw. 1·39-1·44), 11 L III (hw. 1·91-2·01-2·18) Germany: Berlin-Gross-Lichterfelde, 18.iv.36, poor soil of meadow, Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1796. -1 L (hw. 1.67) Seeburg, Mansfeld, 15.viii.21, under stone, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 378.—1 L (hw. 2·18) Limbach, Vogtland, Saxony, 22.viii.21, under stone, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 405.—1 L (hw. 1.58) Saxon Switzerland, north of the Felsenmühle (Kirnitzsch-area), 31.x.21, in soil of meadow, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 319.—2 L (hw. 1.52-1.6) Gross-Baum, Labiau, E. Prussia, xii.35, in wood under stone. Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1759. In these larvae, and the preceding one, two auxiliary teeth are present, the distal one weak; characters, therefore, are very similar to *Pseudophonus*, but head less broad, much more rounded, and less narrowed behind.—b. Mandible without auxiliary tooth: H. (H.) honestus Duftschmid. 1 L I, 1 L I on slide (hw. 1.05-1.08) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—1 L II on slide (hw. 1.5) same data, 16.vi.22, B.M. It is remarkable that the larva of honestus should differ so strongly from that of rufitarsis, that the latter and rubripes 34 should be so similar, and that latus should be more similar to honestus than to rubripes. Perhaps a mistake has been made by Dr. Verhoeff with these species.—H. (H). latus L. 2 L III on slides (hw. 1.99-2.58) Aubing, nr. Munich, at pond, Verhoeff, B.M. I am practically certain that these are actually H. aeneus L.— H. (H.) aeneus L. 1 L I (hw. 1·2), 8 L II (hw. 1·57-1·66-1·76), 35 L III (hw. 1.99-2.33-2.59), sexed exuv. III, from which adults were raised by me, Germany: Riesa on Elbe, iv.-v.36, larvae in soil of garden, W. Döhler leg., ded., coll. E. 1849, 2512.—4 L I (hw. 1·28-1·30-1·35), 1 exuv. II (hw. 1·65), 2 L III (hw. 1.91-2.18) Dresden-Klein-Zschachwitz, L. hatched from egg 26.vi., pre-

The auxiliary tooth is present in larvae of *H. rubripes* recently reared from the egg. The eggs were deposited by a female which was collected for me, while this paper was in the press, with other living Carabidae by Mr. S. Croft.

served respectively, 27.vi., 27.vii., 8.ix.35, coll. E. 1880.—4 L I (hw. 1.40-1.44-1.47) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—H. (H.) aeneus L.? 1 L III (hw. 2.41) Shanklin, I.O.W., v.30, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—1 L I (hw. 1.26) S. Kensington, viii.34, S. J. Turpin leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2·44) New Forest, 1.i.31, J. E. M. Mellor leg., B.M.—2 L III (hw. 2.27) Hendon, 12.vi.32, in garden paths, beetles also present, K. G. Blair leg., det., B.M.—1 L I (hw. 1·19) Britain?, B.M.— 2 exuv. III (hw. 2·13-2·30), 3 P. Germany: Lausa, nr. Dresden, in garden, coll. E. 827.—1 L III (hw. 2.23) Lübeck, Siemss leg., coll. E. 1387.—1 L III (hw. 2.30) Büsum, North Sea, vi.21, C. Urban leg., ded., coll. E. 248.—1 L III (hw. 2·13) Sachsenburg, 22.v.32, on roots of Plantago maritima, H. Gebien leg., Emd. det., Mus. Hamburg ded., coll. E. 1163.—1 L III (hw. 2.46) Pretzsch, nr. Merseburg, 19.vii.32, O. Michalk leg., ded., coll. E. 1035.—1 L III (hw. 2.37) Berlin-Gross-Lichterfelde, 18.iv.36, in poor soil of meadow, R. Korschefsky leg., ded., coll. E. 1794.—1 L I (hw. 1.29) Heligoland, viii.20, coll. E. 348.—1 L III (hw. 2.3) France: Versailles, 1931, L. Mesnil leg., ded., coll. E. 840.—1 exuv. III (hw. 2·18) same data, coll. E. 1012.—2 L II (hw. 1·4) Ile d'Yeu, Vendée, ix.35, R. Paulian leg., M.P.—H. (H.) indicola Bates, see Gardner, 1938, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 3:150.—H. (H.) spp. 2 L III (hw. 2.96-3.0) Germany: Klingenberg on Main, 4.iii.38, in garden, W. Döhler leg., ded., coll. E. 2908.—1 L (hw. 1·37) Prödel, nr. Leipzig, 2.x.19, coll. E. 273. This specimen has a fine anterior keel on the tergites, but the seta of the basal joint of the labial palpi excludes it from the Anisodactylina.

Agonoderus lineola Fabricius. 5 L II (hw. 1.05-1.15-1.24), 13 L III (hw. 1.56-1.64-1.78) U.S.A.: Chevy Chacas Lake, Maryland, 30.vii.21, on golf-

course putting-greens, H. S. Barber, M.W.

Bradycellus (Stenocellus) rupestris Say. 1 exuv. III (hw. 0.6), 1 I. U.S.A.:

Anna, Ill., 3.vi.37, in soil of peach orchard, adult emerged 22.vi.37, M.W.

Stenolophus teutonus Schrank. 1 L III (hw. 1·05), 1 L III without head, 1 P., Denmark, M.C. The material is marked "S." and was used by Schiödte for his description. The head is loose, and the nasale has been cut off and perhaps kept on a slide. Of the other head only a fragment of one parietale is present. The tube contains two other larvae, one (evidently parasitised) belongs to Amara sp., the other probably to the same genus, but it has been crippled by a parasite. The material has, moreover, apparently suffered from being exposed to sunlight.—S. sp.? 4 L I (hw. 0·52-0·54-0·56), 4 L II (hw. 0·75-0·77-0·80) France: Ile d'Yeu, Vendée, 30.vii.37, mare près du grand Phare, R. Paulian, M.P.—1 L II (hw. 0·78) same data, ix., M.P.—1 L II (hw. 0·8) same data, 3.ix.37, M.P.—1 L III (hw. 1·08) same data, viii.37, M.P. The first and second stages have the head-capsule narrowed to base, but the other characters as Acupalpus.

Acupalpus exiguus Dejean. 1 L I, 1 L I on slide (hw. 0·3) Germany: adults Gundorf, nr. Leipzig, L hatched ex ovo 29.iv. and 4.v.22, coll. E. 2549.

Chlaenius (pars a) nigricornis Fabricius. 1 L III (hw. 1·29) C. Europe, Verhoeff, B.M.—?1 L II (hw. 0·94) G. Britain: Charmouth, vii.20, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—C. (pars a) spp. 1 L (hw. 1·26) Britain?, B.M.—1 L (hw. 1·24) Germany: Seeburg, Mansfelder Seekreis, 12·vi.21, under stone, H. Dietze leg., ded., coll. E. 385.—1 L (hw. 0·87) Doberschützer Moor, nr. Eilenburg, 1.vii.18, from Sphagnum, coll. E. 160.—1 L I (hw. 0·94) Morocco: Ht. Atlas, Inri n'Ouaba, 2000 m., 9.ix.38, Paulian et Villiers leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 2·02) China: Gan Chouen, Hin y fou et Loyang, P. Cavalerie leg., M.P.—1 L (hw. 1·64) Sta. Catharina: Nova Teutonia, 27° S. lat., 52–53° long., F. Plaumann leg., ded., coll. E. 2218.—1 L (hw. 1·5) Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., Lake

Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2168.—1 L (hw. 1.5) same data, coll. E. 2024.—12 L (several species) same data, coll. E. 2924.—1 L (hw. 2.09) Abyssinia: bords Riv. Antou? (Ousné des Cartes), affluent gauche de l'Omo, 900 m., Mission du Bourg de Bozas, L. Didier leg., M.P.—1 L I (hw. 0.72) Damraou, Mission Chari-Tchad, 25.vi.03, J. Decorse leg., M.P.—C. (Chlaeniellus) vestitus Paykull, nitidulus Schrank, nigricornis Fabricius, leucoscelis Chevrolat, impunctifrons Say, rayotus Bates, laetiuscujus Chaudoir belong to pars a, according to the descriptions by Schiödte, Schaupp, Classen (1919, Ann. ent. Soc. Amer. 12:95), Gardner, Raynaud (1935, Misc. ent. 36: (17-31)), and Boldori (1940, Mem. Soc. ent. ital. 18:283). The larva described as fulgidicollis Duftschmid by Xambeu (1894) is hardly a Chlaenius, but probably a Pterostichine larva.—C. (pars b) festivus Panzer? 1 L III (hw. 2-14) Austria: Eastern shore of Neusiedler See, 30.vii.07, Ebner leg., Fulmek ded., coll. E. 1900.—C. sericeus Forster? 2 L III (hw. 1.84-1.91) U.S.A.: Milwaukee, Wisc., 22.viii.37, Harry van Emden leg., ded., coll. E. 2978.—C. (pars b) spp. 2 L I (hw. 0.86-0.92) same data, 3.vii.37, coll. E. 2982.—1 L I (hw. 0.91), 1 L II (hw. 1.43) Sud tunisien et algérien, Bouvier leg., M.P.—1 L I (hw. 0.92), 1 L II (hw. 1.28) Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., Lake Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2927.—1 L (hw. 3.0) same data, coll. E. 2919. The latter specimen is a most remarkable larva with the sclerites pale testaceous with piceous spotlets. It suggests an isolated group.—1 L (hw. 3.9) Madagascar: nr. Sakarami, M. de Rothschild leg., 1905, M.P. Very similar to E. 2919.—The following larvae, described by various authors, belong to section b: velutinus Duftschmid (Raynaud 1935; differing from festivus? by the whitish lateral quarter of the second to fourth tergites), auripilis Andrewes (Gardner 1936), punctatostriatus Chaudoir (Gardner 1938), sericeus Forster, laticollis Say, (Chlaenites) circumdatus Brullé (Gardner 1938), (Epomis) circumscriptus Duftschmid (Boldori 1940). In all the adults of Chlaenius pars a the basal margin of the elytra joins the side margin in a curved line, but the same condition is found in *punctatostriatus*, whereas in all the other species of pars b the two margins meet in an angle.

Rhopalopalpus janthinus Redtenbacher, see Gardner 1931, Indian Forest

Rec. Ent. 16:93.

Callistomimus chalcocephalus Wiedemann, see Gardner, 1936, loc. cit. (n.s.)

(Ent.) 2:188.

Oodes helopioides Fabricius. 3 L III (hw. 1·2-1·28) Denmark: Fürsö, 14.viii.02, in rubbish at edge of water, E. Rosenberg leg., det., ded., coll. E. 189.—1 L III (hw. 1·28) Germany: Stotternheim, Thuringia, 18.vii.24, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 2507.—2 L III (hw. 1·2-1·24) Walkenried, S. Harz Mts., 1.viii.20, K. Dorn leg., ded., coll. E. 202.

Rembus laticollis Leconte. 1 exuv. III (hw. c. 1·1), 1 I. U.S.A., coll. Hamilton, M.W.—1 L III (hw. 1·2) Milwaukee, Wisc., 15.viii.37, Harry van

Emden leg., ded., coll. E. 2977.

Dicaelus purpuratus Bonelli. 1 L III (hw. 2·3) U.S.A.: New Orleans, Sallé leg., B.M. Obviously the specimen described by Candèze.—D. sp. 1 L California?, M.P.

Licinus punctulatus Fabricius. 1 L III (hw. 1·26) France: Hyères, v.21, K. G. Blair leg., Emd. det., B.M.—1 L II (hw. 0·94; width of metanotum 2·44 mm.). Morocco: O. Judios, Vallée moyenne et Colline de la rive droite, 1901, G. Buchet leg., M.P.—1 L II (hw. 0·94; width of metanotum 2·62 mm.) Sidi-Ali, nr. Azemmour, Mission du Gast, M.P.—2 L III (hw. 1·15—1·19) Algeria: Arzeu, iv.88, Brölemann leg., M.P.—1 L I (hw. 0·94; width of

metanotum 1.67 mm.) France: St. Raphael, Var, iv.38, Guy Colas leg., M.P.— L. depressus Paykull. 1 L III? on slide (hw. 0.84) Germany: Lochham, nr. Pasing (Munich), 15.vi.21, Verhoeff, B.M.—L. sp. 1 L on slide (hw. 1.13) Italy: Loreto, nr. Ancona, 17.iv.25, Verhoeff, B.M.

Dilonchus bidens Andrewes, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.)

(Ent.) 2:181, 186.

Trichisia morio Laferté, see Gardner, 1927, Indian Forest Rec., Ent. 18:66;

1936, loc. cit. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:182.

Panagaeus crux major L. 1 L III (hw. 0.88) in process of pupating, Denmark: Alleröd, 30.vii.36, Rosenberg leg., det., ded., coll. E. 2286.—1 L III on slide (hw. c. 0.81) Denmark, Verhoeff, B.M.—P. sp. 1 exuv. III (hw. 0.88) Channel Islands, W. E. China leg., ded., B.M.

Craspedophorus (and related genera) spp. 1 L (hw. 1·42) Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., Lake Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2023.—1 L I dry (hw. 1·1) Sierra Leone: Njala, 1.vi.26, E. Hargreaves leg., B.M.—1 L (hw. 1·54) Hongkong, J. C. Bowring, B.M. (specimen incomplete).—The third and fourth antennal joints are only present in the larva from Ukerewe. In my former key I reported the antennae to be three-jointed with a minute fourth joint, according to Coquerel. I am now satisfied that the so-called fourth joint was in reality the appendix of the third, and that the real fourth joint was lost in Coquerel's larva.

Tefflus sp., see Burgeon, 1934, Bull. Ann. Soc. ent. Belg. 74: 189.—T. juvenilis muansanus Kolbe? 3 L I (hw. 2·19-2·21-2·23), 1 L II (hw. 3·0), 5 L III (hw. 3·8-3·85-3·9 mm.) Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., Lake Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2919, 2169, 2022. Besides this form T. zanzibaricus gogonicus Kolbe has been collected by Father Conrads, but it is still larger, and, therefore, the larvae are assumed to be rather muansanus.—T. corpulentus Sternberg? 1 L II (hw. 4·7) Belg. Congo: Ubangi, Libenge, i.30, H. J. Bredo leg., Congo Mus. ded., Emd. det., coll. E. 1997.—T. sp. 1 L I (hw. 2·6) Mozambique: Guengère, 13.xii.05, G. Vasse, M.P.

Anaulacus fasciatus Schmidt-Goebel. 3 L I (hw. 0.50-0.51-0.52), 1 L II (hw. 0.65), 2 L III (hw. 0.91-0.94) India: Batu Caves, Selangor, 20-23.xi.26, in the Dark Cave, 600-1200 ft. from entrance, C. Dover leg., B.M. See Blair,

1929, J.F.M.S. Mus. 14: 385.

Masoreus orientalis Dejean, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:197. I have seen a mounted specimen and made the following notes supplementary to Gardner's description: fourth antennal joint hardly shorter than third, joints of outer lobe subequal, second joint of maxillary palpi (third, if palpiger included) only half as long as the last joint, tarsi and tibiae without setae except for the apical ones.

Tetragonoderus elegans Andrewes, see Gardner, 1938, Indian Forest Rec.

(n.s.) (Ent.) 3: 154.

Zuphiini? genus indet. 1 L II or III (hw. 1.01) French Guinea: Kouroussia, viii.37, L. Berland leg., M.P. Obviously a very isolated type of Truncatipennes. There is hardly an isolated group unknown, occurring in W. Africa, but the Zuphiini, of which the two genera Eunostus and Zuphium are possible.

Genus indet. 4 (Eurycoleus?). 1 L II or III (hw. 1.47) Venezuela, Geay

leg., M.P.

Coptodera interrupta Schmidt-Goebel, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:193, 194. I have seen one of Mr. Gardner's slides, from which I made the following notes: the penicillus is not distinguishable, but apparently

broken, ligula absent, but the setae well developed; abdominal tergites not margined; anal segment conical, without crotchets; tarsi and tibiae as in *Mochtherus*; the apical part of the cerci distinctly separated as a segment, the two preceding parts incompletely separated, fixed at one side as in *Agonum*.

Thyreopterus sp.? 1 L II (hw. 0.94), 4 L III (hw. 1.20-1.24-1.27) Ivory Coast: Haut Cavally, Ch. van Cassel leg., M.P. Characters of the Coptoderina, which are represented at the Ivory Coast by Thyreopterus (incl. Thyreopterinus), Catascopus and Coptodera. As the larva of an Oriental Coptodera is known and it is considerably different, and since the following larva but two is assumed to be Catascopus (p. 78), it is probable that the present larvae, which must belong to a species of which the adult is approximately 7.5-8.5 mm., are Thyreopterus or its subgenus Thyreopterinus Alluaud. As the base of the seta that represents the inner lobe forms a small tubercle, this might also be one of the genera transitional between Anchomenina and Truncatipennes, perhaps Colpodes or a related genus.

Mochtherus tetraspilotus McLeay, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:193. The slide, which I was able to study by courtesy of Mr. Gardner, shows that: the abdominal tergites are not margined, each crotchet is about half as long as the tenth abdominal segment is wide, the tarsi and tibiae are without ventral bristles, only a whorl at apex of tibia and a pair of dorsal setae at apex of tarsus being present, the claws are very

unequal, the cerci distinctly quite unjointed.

Lobodontus trisignatus Chaudoir? 2 L III? (hw. 1·13-1·20) Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., L. Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2170. These larvae may belong either to Lobodontus, of which only one species has been found on Ukerewe, or to another type of Catascopus, but the size would best fit the former, the adult of which is 7·5 mm. long. The only other genera of Coptoderina found by Father Conrads are Thyreopterus (incl. Thyreopterinus) and Coptodera.

Catascopus sp.? 1 L III (hw. 2.3) Tonkin: Upper reaches of river Claire, J. de Retz leg., M.P. This larva must belong to the Coptoderina, and the size of the adult must be above 13 mm. As far as I am aware, the large species of Catascopus of this region are the only Coptoderina of this size, of which the larvae are unknown, and which reach so far to the north-east of the Oriental

region.

Cymindis humeralis Fourcroy. 6 L I, 1 on slide (hw. 0.56-0.57-0.58) Verhoeff, B.M.—C. angularis Gyllenhal. Some unpublished drawings by Mr. E. C. Rosenberg of Copenhagen.—C. sp. 1 L II? on slide (hw. 0.77) Poland: Warsaw, 25.x.25, Makolski leg., Netolitzky ded., coll. E.

Cymindoidea indica Schmidt-Goebel, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec.

(n.s.) (Ent.) 2: 196.

Arsinoë grandis Péringuey. 2 L II? (hw. 1·12) Tanganyika, with the prey: L of Catamerus revoili Fairmaire, B.M.—1 L I (hw. 0·73) 5 L II? (hw. 1·13) on slides, Nyasaland, C. Smee leg., B.M. See Blair, 1927, Proc. ent Soc. Lond. 1:58, 60. Arsinoë is an isolated genus within the Lebiini, in the adult as well as in the larval stage, and is included in the Lebiina as an aberrant genus of this subtribe.

Lebia scapularis Fourcroy. 3 L I (hw. 0·3), 2 P., cocoons 1 I. France: Vienne, Dauphiné, 20.vii.21, L. Falcoz leg., B.M.—L. chlorocephala Hoffmann. L I (hw. c. 0·55), see Rosenberg, 1903, Ent. Meddel. (2) 2:9.

Onota floridana Horn. 1 L II (hw. 0.60), 1 L III (hw. 0.90) U.S.A.: Punta Gorda, Fla., 14.vii.94, with adults beaten from Palmeiro fans, M.W. The

cerci of these larvae are broken, and I cannot trace the crotchets of the tenth abdominal segment. The colour is entirely pale, the seta of the first joint of the outer lobe does not very far exceed the apex of the second joint, retinaculum wholly absent.—O. angulicollis Reiche or Otoglossa sp.? 1 L I (hw. 0.51) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 30.i.36, on withered leaf, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 2831. Cerci (fig. 81) three- or four-jointed, only the first articulation more distinct, crotchets distinct. Colour of the selerites dark brown, but apical half of cerci whitish. Seta of the first joint of the outer lobe longer, a minute, appressed retinaculum present (fig. 57).

Plochionus pallens Fabricius. 4 L II (hw. 0.67-0.79), 1 L III (hw. 1.09) from Mexico: Tehuacan, Pueb., 2.xii.36, imported in Laredo, Tex., U.S.A., on dry garlic, M.W.—1 L II (hw. 0.75) same data, 12.vi.37, M.W.—P. timidus Haldeman. 3 L II (hw. 0.71-0.77), 2 L III (hw. 1.05-1.13) U.S.A.: Kirk-

wood, Mo., 29.vi.92, M.W.

Calleida purpurea Say. 1 exuv. II (hw. 0.94), 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.31), 1 I. U.S.A.: Rocky Ford, Color., 17.viii.15, feeding on larvae of Ancylis comptana Froelich, pupated 29.viii., adult emerged 5.ix., C.C. Hamilton leg., M.W.—C. decora Fabricius. 1 exuv. II (hw. 0.90), 1 exuv. III (hw. 1.28), 2 P. U.S.A.: Crescent City, M.W.—C. spp. 1 L II? (hw. 0.9) U.S.A.: Tampa, Fla., iv.76, Schwarz leg., M.W.—1 L II? (hw. 0.96) Costa Rica: Guapiles, 24.vi.35, on shrub, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 2734.—See Gardner, cited under Parena.

Andrewesella trivittata Leconte. 1 L III? (hw. 0.71), 2 I. U.S.A.: Key West, Fla., 15.iii.92, feeds on young Tingid (Corythuca gossypii), E. A. Schwarz leg., M.W.

Parena nigrolineata Chaudoir, see Gardner, 1933, Indian Forest Rec., Ent.,

17 (8): 11.

Dromius agilis L. 1 L III (hw. 0.77) Denmark: Damhusmosen, nr. Copenhagen, 9.vii.05, under bark of willow, Kryger leg., M.C.—D. quadrimaculatus L. 3 L III (hw. 0.66-0.71-0.75) Denmark: Tisvilde Hegn, 17.iv.30, Sv. G. Larsson, M.C.—D. linearis Olivier? 1 L III (hw. 0.52) Branscombe, iv.35, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—D. eremnus Andrewes, see Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:195.—D. sp. 1 L III (hw. 0.58) Beer, S. Devon, iv.30, K. G. Blair leg., B.M.—D. sp.? 1 L II or III (hw. 0.43) Germany: Hamburg-Horn, on main branch of apple-tree, Titschack leg., Mus. Hamburg. I identified this larva some years ago as Metabletus or Microlestes sp. and made drawings of it. It has no trace of cerci and only a minute tooth on the claws; no egg-bursters are present; the size of the adult must be about 3.9 mm. or 2.7 mm. As a larva of Metabletus has since been described, and as the other characters and the habitat are those of Dromius, I think now that this is one of the smaller species of that genus.

Risophilus atricapillus L. 1 L II (hw. 0.51), 1 L III (hw. 0.65) Denmark: Stengade, Langel., 9.viii.96, W. Schlick leg., M.C.—1 L II (hw. 0.51), 1 L III (hw. 0.69) Reigate, 3.vii.73, B.M.—1 L III (hw. 0.70) Ottery St. Mary, Devon, vii.35, S. Turpin leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 0.68) France: Lampaul-Plouarzel, Finistère, 12–14.vii.37, in garden Le Créach, G. Lemasne leg., M.P.—None of these larvae has crotchets on the anal tubes, which are said by Böving (1931,

Ent. amer. (n.s.) 11:19) to be present in Demetrias.

Metabletus cymindulus Bates. 1 L III on slide (hw. 0.56) India: Almorah, U.P., in soil, J. C. M. Gardner leg., det., ded., B.M. See Gardner, 1936, Indian Forest Rec. (n.s.) (Ent.) 2:195.

Oecornis nidicola Britton (1940, Ent. mon. Mag. 76:110). 7 LI (hw. 0·39-0·40-0·42), 5 LII (hw. 0·57-0·58-0·60), 3 LIII (hw. 0·74-0·80-0·83)

Tanganyika: Amani, i.37, in nest of hornbill (*Bycanistes cristatus* Rüppell), R. E. Moreau leg., B.M.

Odacantha melanura Paykull. L III (hw. c. 0.9) see Rosenberg, 1903, Ent.

Meddel. (2) 2:1-21, t. 1, f. 1-8.

Leptotrachelus dorsalis Fabricius. 1 L III (hw. 0.84), 1 P., 1 I. U.S.A.: Oxford, Indiana, 19.viii.84, F. M. Webster leg., M.W.—A larva with similar characters but a more developed inner lobe (hw. 1.31) from Kashmir: Gulmarg, 1931, in fungus, M. Cameron leg., is in B.M. This may belong to a genus of Colliurini or one of Anchomenina transitional towards the former group.

Drypta dentata Rossi. 1 L III (hw. 1.27) France: Parc de Versailles, in decomposing hay, vii.29, L. Mesnil, coll. E. 3005. 1 L III (hw. 1.27) France: Plouarzel, Finistère, 17. viii. 37, running on the ground, G. Lemasne leg., M.P. I obtained the first of these larvae from my friend, M. L. Mesnil, who, together with F. Pétré, described it as that of Pterostichus strenuus Panzer (1931, Bull. Soc. ent. France 1930: 324). This is an interesting instance of the fact that even breeding may result in misidentification, unless each larva is bred individually. Apparently a larva of Pterostichus was among those captured, or in the soil, etc., and happened to transform first or alone. The larva described by Mesnil could ex systemate and patria only be that of Drypta or Polystichus, and the close relationship with the known larvae of Galerita would suggest the former identification. This was confirmed with certainty, when I obtained through the kindness of Father Conrads the following almost identical larva from Ukerewe, where Polystichus does not occur, whereas several species of Drypta are quite common.—D. sp. 1 L III (hw. 1-15) Tanganyika: Ükerewe Is., L. Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2925.

Desera australis Péringuey? 1 L II (hw. 0.75), 2 L III (hw. 1.05) Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., L. Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2925. These larvae may either be another species of Drypta or Desera sp., but I should not expect the species of Drypta to differ so much and consider Desera more probable, though I have seen only a single adult (D. australis) from Ukerewe,

whereas several species of Drypta are common on the island.

Galerita lecontei Dejean. 1 L III (hw. 2.30), 1 I. U.S.A.: New Orleans, Sallé, B.M. 65-54.—G. nigra Chevrolat. 1 L III (hw. 2.62) Mexico, Sallé leg., B.M. 65-54. This is no doubt the specimen described by Candèze (1861, Mém. Soc. R. Sci. Liège 16: 327) as number 54 of 1865 in the accessionregister of the B.M. includes practically all the American species described in Candèze's paper of 1861. The specimens were bought by the B.M. from Sallé.— G. simplex Chaudoir. 1 L III (hw. 1.92) Mexico, B.M. 65-54. Obviously the specimen described by Candèze, loc. cit.: 329.—G. spp. 1 L dry (hw. 1.85) Brazil: Tapajoz, Bates leg., B.M.—1 L III (hw. 2.51) S. Catharina: Nova Teutonia, 27° lat., 52-53° long., F. Plaumann leg., ded., coll. E. 2142.—1 L II (hw. 1.40) Costa Rica: Reventazon, Hamburg Farm, 25.xi.36, near nest of Eciton, F. Nevermann leg., ded., coll. E. 2972. This specimen is even smaller than the following one from N. Rhodesia, but it has no egg-bursters, and the cerci are 11-jointed, including base. As some of the African species are much larger and stouter, there is no doubt that this Costa Rica specimen must be the second stage in spite of the smaller size.—1 L I dry (hw. 1.67) N. Rhodesia: Kipushi, 8.ii.28, active runner, S. Evans leg., ded., B.M. Differs from all the others seen by having only three very long segments besides the long, fixed basal part of the cerci. This may be a character of the first stage (most likely) or of the first stage of the African species, or perhaps even of all the stages of the African species.

Mormolyce phyllodes Hagenbach. 1 L II? (hw. 3.45) Borneo: Sarawak, R. Shelford leg., det., ded., M.C. The discrepancies between this larva and Verhuell's description (on which I had to rely in my earlier key) are very great, though the mandible and labium figured by Verhuell are similar to those of the present larva.

Omphra sp. 2 L (hw. 1.85) S. India: Coimbatore, 1911, Cecil S. C. Fisher, B.M.—O. atrata Klug, see Gardner, 1933, Indian Forest Rec., Ent. 17 (8): 4.

Triaenogenius sculpturatus Gerstäcker? 8 L Tanganyika: Ukerewe Is., Lake Victoria, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2923. T. sculpturatus is the only common species of this group on Ukerewe, the other forms belonging to Macrocheilus and being rare. Father Conrads therefore believes that this cannot be the latter but must be T. sculpturatus. The head-widths of the larvae are 1.07 (1 larva), 1.26-1.35 (3) and 1.73-1.78 (4), the factors of growth being 1.21 and 1.35. If the species has three larval stages as in other Carabidae, the adult would measure about 11-13 mm. and fit some East African Macrocheilus, whereas Triaenogenius is of twice that size. On the other hand, the larvae would seem to be generically distinct from Macrocheilus niger. As the smallest larva has no egg-bursters, it may be possible that this strange group of Carabidae has more than three larval stages and that my material does not contain either the first or the last stage. In the smallest larva the eighth abdominal segment is black, whereas it is pale in the other larvae, the vestigial second joint of the cerci is proportionately twice as long as in the larger larvae.

Macrocheilus niger Andrewes and Colfax stevensi Andrewes, see Gardner, 1933, Indian Forest Rec., Ent. 17 (8): 4-6, where the known larvae of Helluonini are tabulated, the present key to this tribe being largely based on that of Gardner. The larva described by Schaum as that of Creagris labrosa Nietner (= Acanthogenius piceus Schaum) does certainly not belong to this group, the description and figures are, however, too inadequate to permit the genus or

tribe to be recognised.

Eccoptoptera mutilloides mela Strohmeyer? 1 LI (hw. 1.54) Ukerewe, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2922. Father Conrads has collected the following adults of Anthiini on Ukerewe: Anthia massilicata stygne Kolbe (length 35-42 mm.), Eccoptoptera cupricollis ukerewensis Strohmeyer (16-16.5 mm.; acc. to Strohmeyer: 14 mm.), E. mutilloides mela Strohmeyer (19 mm.; Strohmeyer: 17-19.5 mm.), Polyhirma caillaudi ukerewensis Kuntzen (26-28 mm.; Strohmeyer: 22-28 mm.), P. trilunata insulana Strohmeyer (19-22 mm.; Strohmeyer: up to 25 mm.), P. gracilis hemiraphis Strohmeyer (common, 14.5-18 mm.; Strohmeyer: 17 mm.), and P. elegantula conradsi Sternberg (16 mm.; Strohmeyer: ♂ 14-16, ♀ 16-17 mm.). There can thus be no doubt about the identification of the Anthia, which is common on Ukerewe, and hardly any about the larger larvae with elongate head and short cerci, which must, according to their head-width, belong to an adult of about 24-29 mm. length, i.e. Polyhirma caillaudi ukerewensis. The other two species of larvae certainly belong to two genera, and the smaller one, which indicates an adult of about 13 mm. or a very slender adult of slightly larger size, is obviously more closely related to Polyhirma ukerewensis than the present species and may be P. gracilis hemiraphis, these two being, by the way, the two more common species of Polyhirma on Ukerewe. Therefore, it may be assumed that larva 2922, indicating an adult of 18-19 mm., belongs to the larger species of Eccoptoptera, which is common on Ukerewe. Its more striking characters. besides those mentioned in the key, are: head orange, first two abdominal TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 1. (JULY 1942.)

segments yellowish orange, tenth abdominal segment, mouth-parts, legs, except coxae, and cerci, except base, brownish orange, the rest black to piceous.— E. sp. 1 L I dry (hw. 2.0) Nyasaland, J. E. S. Old, B.M. Very similar, but cerci distinctly longer than head.

Polyhirma gracilis hemiraphis Strohmeyer? 1 L I (hw. 1-1), 1 L II (hw. 1.44) Ukerewe, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2967. Concerning the identification see Eccoptoptera. Epipleurites simple, slightly convex, the setae not very dense nor strong. Sclerites of eighth abdominal segment free. Head, prothorax and the first two abdominal segments orange, the head somewhat more reddish, the two abdominal segments more yellowish, mouth-parts and tips of legs more brownish, the other sclerites piceous, cerci and tenth segment somewhat yellowish towards apex. Posterior claw of each tarsus more than half as long as the anterior one.—P. caillaudi ukerewensis Kuntzen? 8 L I (hw. 2·0-2·3) Ukerewe, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2167, 2921. Epipleurites bluntly coniform and strongly setose. Sternum and sternella of eighth abdominal segment fused. Head reddish piceous, antennae, mouth-parts and legs brown (but fore coxae orange), pronotum reddish-brown, first two abdominal segments yellowish orange, tenth segment brownish orange, the other sclerites piceous. Posterior claw of each tarsus a third as long as anterior one. For a photograph see Boldori, 1940, Miss. biol. Paese Borana Zool. 2 (1): (9), fig. 2.—P. sp.? 2 L I (hw. 2.55) Dakar, ix.33, under stone, L. Berland leg., M.P. Like the following, only slightly paler.—1 LI (hw. 2.5) Niger-Tchad, Tibiri-Maradi, Mission Tilho, vii.-viii.07, R. Gaillard leg., M.P. The shape of the head and the fused ventral sclerites of the eighth abdominal

segment as in P. caillaudi, but the other characters are as in Anthia.

Anthia massilicata stygne Kolbe. 7 L I (hw. 3-3·2), 1 L II (hw. 3·9), 2 L III (hw. 5-3-5-4) Ukerewe, A. Conrads leg., ded., coll. E. 2167, 2920. Concerning the identification see *Eccoptoptera*. The head-width suggests an adult of about 36 mm. or more; my beetles from Ukerewe are 35 and 42 mm. long. Head and cerci piceous-red, meso- and metanotum and seventh and eighth abdominal segments orange. For a photograph see Boldori, 1940, Miss. biol. Paese Borana Zool. 2 (1): (7) fig. 2, (9) fig. 1. The posterior claw of each tarsus is extremely small and closely appressed to the anterior one, so that apparently only one claw exists. Cerci rather blunt in shape, suddenly constricted and pointed, in the second and third stages they are clothed between the setae with rather dense, short, fine, erect hairs.—A. massilicata subsp.? 1 L I (hw. 2.7) Tanganyika: Iringa, coll. E. 2547. Very closely related and probably conspecific. 1 L I (hw. 2.9) Nyasaland, Sandy coll., B.M. Also very similar.—A. decemguttata L.? (hw. 4.5) S. Africa: Willowmore, H. Brauns leg., ded., coll. E. 2548. Similar to stygne, but in addition to the meso- and metanotum the sixth to eighth abdominal segments are orange, cerci clothed with very unequal strong setae, among which on the apical half numerous fine, rather long setae are found, gradually tapering, suddenly somewhat constricted at apex and ending in a rather stout point.—A. crudelis Harold? 1 L I (hw. 4-1) Belg. Congo: Kinda, 2.xii.14, L. Charliers leg., Mus. Congo Belge, Tervueren (see Emden, 1937, Ent. mon. Mag. 73:58). The first stage is 17 mm. long, and the head-width indicates an adult of about 49 mm. A. crudelis, an identification which M. L. Burgeon suggested, measures 40-50 mm., according to Harold. Piceous-black, only the middle part of the meso- and metanotum broadly brownish-yellow (approximately on half the width and the entire length of these segments). Cerci and tenth abdominal segment ferruginous. Setae piceous, rufous towards

apex of abdomen.—A. spp. 1 L I (hw. 2.79) Tourkouana-land, 640-1010 m., Mission du Bourg du Bozas, L. Didier leg., M.P.—1 L I (hw. 2.7) Nyasaland: Mlanje, i.-ii.14, J. B. Duvey leg., B.M. Coloration as stygne, cerci rather slender, somewhat incurved, shining, setae rather sparse but very long, apical point rather long and well defined.—1 L III (hw. 6-8) Upper Zambezi, Lenlui district, 1919, V. Ellenberger leg., M.P.—1 LII (hw. 3.9) Upper Dahomey: Cercle D'ougon-Kouandi, Lt. Brot leg., M.P.—A. duodecimguttata Bonelli. 1 L II (hw. 3·2) Arabia: Hafair, 10.viii.34, H. St. J. B. Philby, B.M. Uniformly piceous, with only the head and pronotum piceous-red, cerci somewhat shining, rather short, strongly tapering, but distinctly constricted at apex with a set-off point, setae rather sparse and very long. Posterior claw of each leg more than half as long as the anterior one. This character separates from the other species the present form and -A. sexmaculata Fabricius. See Chopard, 1936, Bull. Soc. ent. France 41: 168. Coloration the same, but cerci slenderer.—A. sexquttata Fabricius. 1 L II? with egg-bursters, but probably a L II in which they have persisted (hw. 4.7), 1 L III (hw. 6.5) Kurrachee, M. Maindron, M.P. See Gardner, 1939, Proc. R. ent. Soc. Lond. (B) 8:18.— A. spp. 1 L I (hw. 2.8) S. Africa: Cape Province, Ceres, ii.32, Miss A. Mackie, B.M. Head and 6th to 8th abdominal segments dull red, dorsum black elsewhere. Cerci somewhat incurved and gradually pointed at apex, subapical constriction very weak, point rather long, cerci scabrose-punctate, setae of unequal length.—1 L I (hw. 3-1) Nyasaland, Sandy leg., B.M. Head and cerci dull red, the entire thorax and the 6th to 8th abdominal segments ferruginous, 1st to 5th segments piceous. Cerci very stout near base, gradually pointed, the subapical constriction very slight. These last two species may perhaps belong to Anthia s.str.

Pheropsophus hispanicus Dejean. 2 L I (hw. 0·32-0·33) adults from Terror, Gran Canaria, larvae raised by K. M. Heller, coll. E. 172. See Emden, 1919, Suppl. ent. 8: 34-38, t. 1.—P. africanus Dejean. 7 L I (hw. 0·38-0·39) adults from Eritrea: Ghinda, larvae raised by L. Boldori, coll. E. See Boldori, 1939, Riv. Biol. colon. 2: 173-183. I owe these larvae to Dr. Heller and Signor Boldori respectively. The organ described as the inner lobe by Boldori is actually a strong seta, which is not stronger than some of the stouter setae of the legs. In hispanicus this seta is very gently and evenly curved inward, whereas in africanus it is more conspicuously curved, particularly in the apical half. The difference in the size of the egg-burster pointed out by Boldori is more apparent than real, the posterior area of the egg-bursters being much less sclerotised in hispanicus and not correctly drawn in my figure of 1919, see

fig. 68.

Brachinus crepitans L. 1 L on slide (hw. 0.25) from adults from Denmark, E. Rosenberg bred 10.vii.19, Rosenberg ded., coll. E.; fig. 8.

All the figures are of larvae and, except for those where no special microscope is indicated, have been drawn with a camera lucida and a Leitz microscope (L) or a Zeiss binocular microscope (Z). The first number after the microscope refers to the eye-piece, the second to the objective used (e.g. L 2, 3 indicates a Leitz microscope with eye-piece 2 and objective 3). The letters a, b, etc. after the objective refer to the scale drawn to the same enlargement; these scales are in mm. A dotted line indicates a part seen by transparence or, so far as projecting parts are thus drawn, a reconstruction of lost parts.

Abbreviations used in the figures.

1, 2, 3 etc. segments of antennae, palpi lg ligula mt mentum or abdomen ad adnasale nasale na ap sensorial appendage ol outer lobe of maxilla at anal tubes parietale pa. palpiger cervical groove pg ck cervical keel pĺ labial palpi COXA pm maxillary palpi CO crotchets penicillus of mandible pn egg-burster postventrite eb po ep epipleurite pr praeventrite epicranial suture rt retinaculum of mandible 68 fe femur sensorium sn fr frontal piece stipes of maxilla st frontal suture fs ta tarsus hp hypopleurite ti tibia trochanter inner lobe of maxilla tr ventrite kn granulose knob of cardo vt

Fig. 1.—Dromius sp.? (Hamburg.) L 3, 2, a. a. One epipleurite more strongly enlarged. b. Ventral view of the sixth to tenth abdominal segments.

Fig. 2.—Physea setosa Chaudoir. Scale b.

Fig. 3.—Leistus spinibarbis Fabricius. Dorsal view of head. L 0, 2, c.

Fig. 4.—Notiophilus biguttatus Fabricius. L I Doberschütz. Dorsal view of head. L 2, 3, d.

Fig. 5.—Physea setosa Chaudoir. Dorsal view of head. L 1, 2, e. k transverse keel.

Fig. 6.—Pogonus luridipennis Germar? LIII, Sülldorf. Dorsal view of head. L 0, 2, c.

Fig. 7.—Orthogonius assmuthi Wasmann. Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a, f.

Fig. 8.—Brachinus crepitans L. Dorsal view of head. L 4, 3, g.

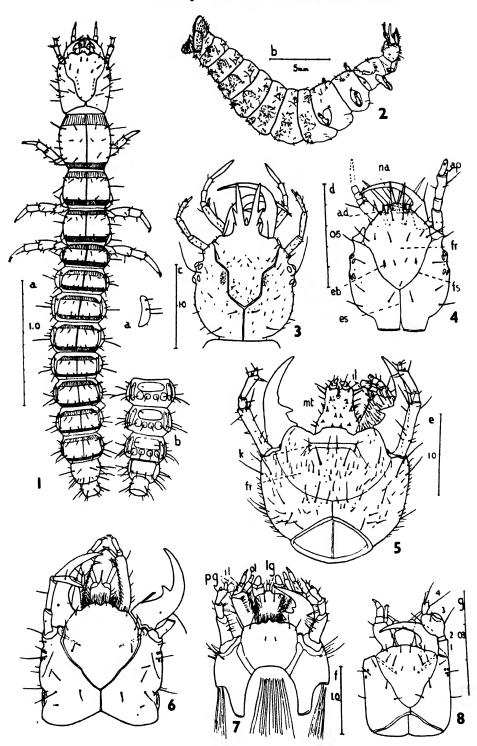
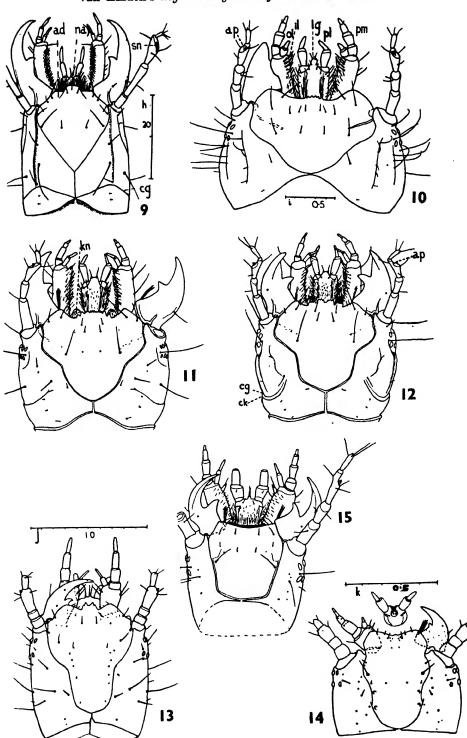


Fig. 9.—Scarites (Scaritodes) semicarinatus Chaudoir. Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a₀, h.
Fig. 10.—Amara (Bradytus) fulva Degeer, Riesa. Dorsal view of head. L 1, 2, i.
Fig. 11.—Anisotarsus sayi Blatchley. Dorsal view of head. L 1, 2, i.
Fig. 12.—Amphasia interstitialis Say. Dorsal view of head. L 0, 2, c.
Fig. 13.—Dromius sp.? Hamburg. Dorsal view of head. L 4, 3, j.
Fig. 14.—Arsinoe grandis Péringuey. L 1, Dorsal view of head. L 1, 3, k.
Fig. 15.—Rembus laticollis Leconte. Milwaukee. Dorsal view of head. L 1, 2, i.



- Fig. 16.—Eccoptoptera mutilloides mela Strohmeyer? Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a₂, f. Left maxilla, right mandible and labial palp omitted.
- Fig. 17.—Triaenogenius sculpturatus Gerstäcker? Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a₂, f. Left mandible omitted.
 - Fig. 18.—Mormolyce phyllodes Hagenbach. Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a₀, h. Fig. 19.—Catascopus sp.? Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a₂, f.
 - Fig. 20.—Craspedophorus sp. Ukerewe. Dorsal view of head. Z 2, a2, f.
- Fig. 21.—Tefflus juvenilis muansanus Kolbe? Dorsal view of head. Left maxilla and right labial palpus omitted. Z 2, f55.
- Fig. 22.—Zuphiini gen. sp.? Dorsal view of head. L 2, 2, m. (The basal sixth of the mandible should be narrower on the dorsal surface, with only the ventral edge somewhat projecting as drawn on the right side.)
- Fig. 23.—Feronia (Poecilus) lucublanda Say. Milwaukee. Lateral view of head. b elongate swelling. L 1, 2, i.

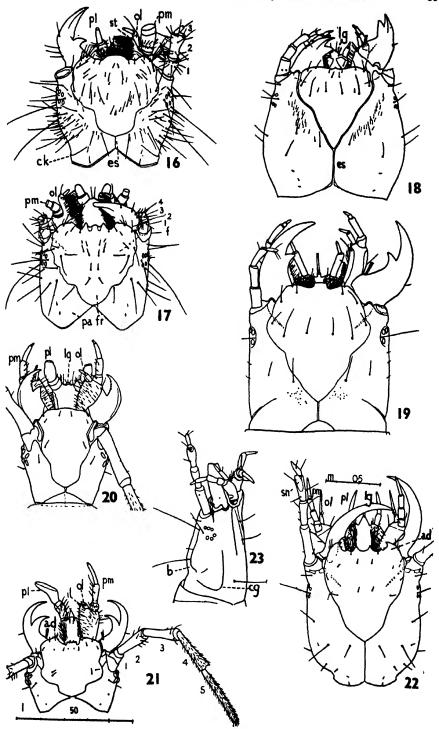


Fig. 24.—Bembidion testaceum Duftschmid. Nasale. L 3, 6, n.

Fig. 25.—Asaphidion flavipes L. LI. Nasale. L2, 6, o.

Fig. 26.—Tachys (Tachyta) nanus Gyllenhal. Nasale. L 1, 6, p.

Fig. 27.—Pogonus luridipennis Germar? LIII, Sülldorf. Nasale. L 2, 3, d.

Fig. 28.—Diachromus germanus L.? LI. Nasale. L4, 3, g.

Fig. 29.—Calosoma inquisitor L. Nasale. L 0, 2, c.

Fig. 30.—Molops piceus Panzer. Nasale. L 1, 3, k.

Fig. 31.—Zabrus tenebrioides Goeze. LI, C. Europe. Nasale. L2, 3, d.

Fig. 32.—Harpalus (Ophonus) stictus Stephens. L III. Nasale.

Fig. 33.—Dromius sp.? Hamburg. Nasale. L 0, 6, q.

Fig. 34.—Oecornis nidicola Britton. a. L III. Nasale and mandible. L 4, 3, r. b. L I. Nasale. L 0, 6, s.

Fig. 35.—Anaulacus fasciatus Schmidt-Goebel. L III, left hind tarsus. L 3, 3, t.

Fig. 36.—Perileptus areolatus Creutzer. a. L I, left fore tarsus. L 2, 6, o. b. L III, left hind tarsus. L 2, 6, o.

Fig. 37.—Galerita sp. Costa Rica. Apical part of right mid tarsus, ventral view. L.O. 6, u.

Fig. 38.—Tachys (Tachyta) nanus Gyllenhal. Left fore tarsus. L 0, 6, u.

Fig. 39.—Broscus cephalotes L. LIII Zibelle. Tibia and tarsus. L 1, 2, i.

Fig. 40.—Dromius sp.? Hamburg. Right mid leg. L 4, 3, j.

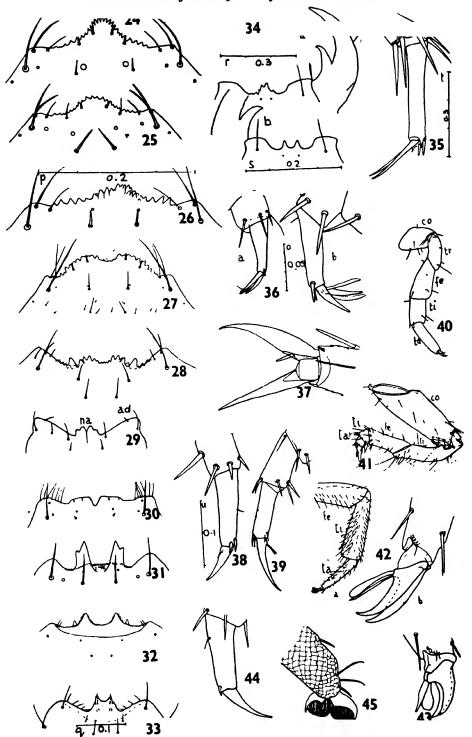
Fig. 41.—Physea setosa Chaudoir. Right fore leg. L 1, 2, e.

Fig. 42.—Desera sp.? a. Apical part of leg. L 0, 2, c. b. Apical part of tarsus. L 0, 6, u.

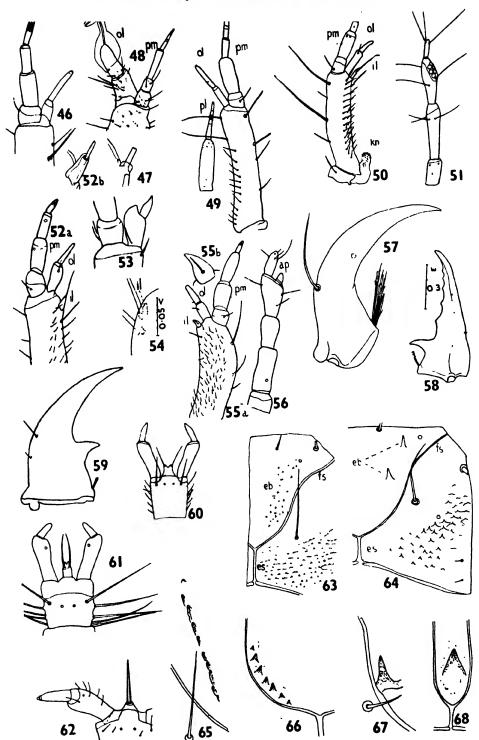
Fig. 43.—Drypta sp. Apical part of tarsus. L 0, 6, u.

Fig. 44.—Asaphidion flavipes L. LI, left fore tarsus. L 2, 6, o.

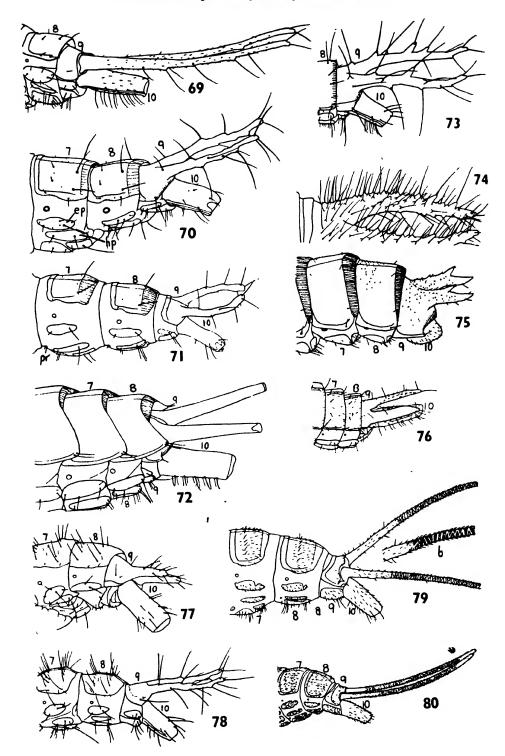
Fig. 45.—Onota angulicollis Reiche? Apical part of right fore tarsus. L 2, 6, 0.



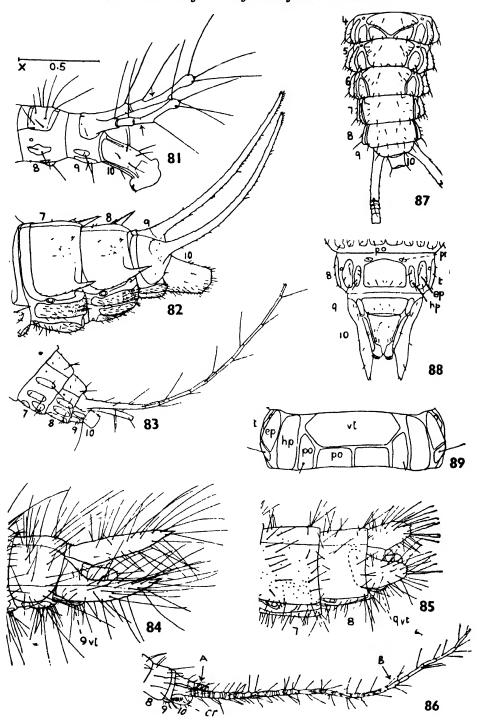
- Fig. 46.—Tachys (Tachyta) nanus Gyllenhal. Apex of left maxilla, dorsal view. L 0, 6, u.
 Fig. 47.—Calathus fuscipes Goeze. L III, Riesa. Inner lobe and surrounding parts of left maxilla, dorsal view. L 0, 6, u.
- Fig. 48.—Loricera pilicornis Fabricius. Schkeuditz. Apex of right maxilla, dorsal view. L 2, 3, d.
- Fig. 49.—Spectrechus humeralis Dodero. Right maxilla and labial palp, dorsal view. L 4, 3, g.
 - Fig. 50.—Harpalus (Ophonus) stictus Stephens. LIII. Left maxilla, dorsal view.
- Fig. 51.—Scarites subterraneus quadriceps Chaudoir. Right antenna, dorso-exterior view. Z 2, a₂, f.
- Fig. 52.—Agonum mülleri Herbst. a. Left maxilla, dorsal view. L 3, 3, t. b. Inner lobe, more strongly enlarged. L 0, 6, u.
- Fig. 53.—Tetragonoderus elegans Andrewes. Apex of left maxilla, dorsal view, after Gardner.
- Fig. 54.—Diceromerus orientalis Hope. Inner lobe and surrounding part of maxilla, ventral view, inner lobe seen by transparence. L 2, 6, v.
- Fig. 55.—Molops piceus Panzer. a. Right maxilla, dorsal view. L 1, 3, k. b. Inner lobe, strongly enlarged. L 0, 6, u.
 - Fig. 56.—Molops piceus Panzer. Right antenna, dorsal view. L 1, 3, k.
 - Fig. 57.—Onota angulicollis Reiche? Left mandible, dorsal view. L 0, 6, u.
 - Fig. 58.—Barysomus sp.? Right mandible, dorsal view. L 0, 3, w.
 - Fig. 59.—Harpalus (Ophonus) stictus Stephens. L III, left mandible, dorsal view.
 - Fig. 60.—Harpalus (Ophonus) stictus Stephens. L III, labium, ventral view.
 - Fig. 61.—Agonoderus lineola Fabricius. Labium, ventral view. L 2, 3, d.
 - Fig. 62.—Chlaenius sericeus Forster? Part of labium, ventral view. L 0, 3, w.
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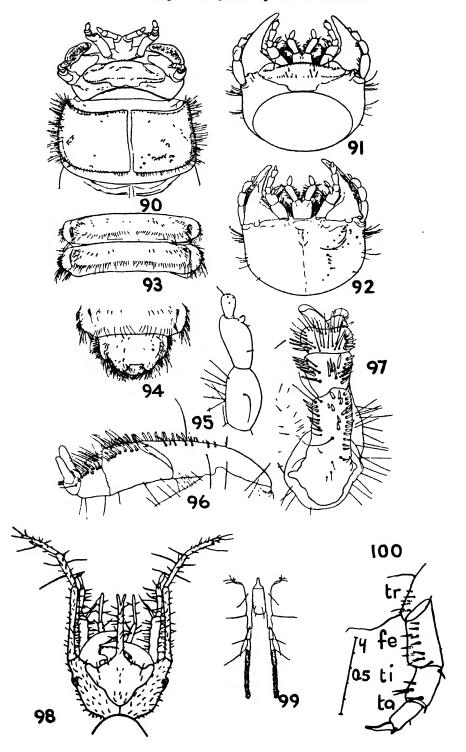
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STUDIES IN THE MIGRATION OF LEPIDOPTERA

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Read 5th November, 1941.

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I. Introduction.

In 1930 the senior author published (Williams 1930b) a survey of the evidence available on the subject of the migration of butterflies, and discussed many of the problems arising out of an analysis of this evidence.

In the intervening ten years considerable progress has been made and in particular the collection and study of records have been greatly facilitated by

three events.

Firstly, in 1931 a group of amateurs was organised by Captain T. Dannreuther to observe the immigration of insects on the south coast of Britain. Under his enthusiastic leadership the organisation has spread to cover the greater part of the British Isles, with its nucleus in the "Insect Immigration Committee" of the South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies. Through its action numerous records have been sent in not only from the land but also, with the co-operation of Trinity House, from the lightships and lighthouses off our coast.

Secondly, in 1937 the National Geographic Society of America published in their magazine a semi-popular article on Butterfly Migration (Williams 1937a). This magazine has a monthly circulation of over a million copies and, as a result of the publicity obtained, between two and three hundred correspondents sent in their observations. Some of these have continued to co-operate and have produced information of first-class importance.

Finally, in 1938 the Leverhulme Research Fellowship Trust made a grant for two years which enabled a full-time research entomologist and a clerk to

be employed at Rothamsted.

On two occasions also the British Association for the Advancement of Science made small grants from which it was possible to purchase necessary filing material and other equipment; and the Royal Society has contributed £100 towards the cost of publication of this report.

The results presented are largely dependent on the help received from these organisations, and this opportunity is taken to thank them, and also Sir John Russell, Director of Rothamsted Experimental Station, for his encouragement of the work carried out there.

Mr. J. A. Downes wishes to express his thanks to Professors W. B. Herms and E. C. Van Dyke of the University of California for help during his investi-

gations in that State.

G. F. Cockbill is author of the sections on the history of British migrants; the influence of the magnetic field; the results of marking insects, and the inter-correlations between the British migrants. These are part of a thesis accepted by the University of London for the Degree of Ph.D.

Miss M. E. Gibbs is author of the section on the records at the British

light vessels.

J. A. Downes is author of the section on the migrations and reproductive cycle of *D. plexippus* in California, this being based on observations made during the tenure of a Commonwealth Fund Fellowship.

The rest of the report is by C. B. Williams.

The Bibliography (p. 264) contains all the references to the migration of Butterflies that we have been able to trace, and which are not in the Bibliography in Williams' book, including both older ones accidentally omitted from this and those published subsequently. Thus the bibliography in Williams' "Migration of Butterflies" (1930b) plus the Bibliography here is as complete a list as possible of the literature on the subject.

II. Some Early references to migration.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

Some early references to the migration of butterflies have already been given (Williams 1930b, p. 12). Since then others have been traced which appear to be worth putting on record for their historical interest.

1100.

In F. Schnürrer's Chronik der Seuchen (History of Calamities) 1:229 (published in 1825) under the year 1100 A.D. there is the passage: "In Germany there were seen passing from the direction of Saxony to Bavaria swarms of insects, which from the resemblance of their outspread wings to tents, were called 'Papilloren'." Schnürrer does not give the source of his information.

The word "Papilio" was used in Latin both for "tents" and for "butter-flies." It seems possible that the insects were Cabbage White butterflies.

1508.

One of the most remarkable early records of a flight of butterflies that has so far been traced is that in Richard Turpyn's "The Chronicles of Calais in the Reigns of Henry VII and Henry VIII to the Year Fifteen Forty." The manuscript is in the British Museum and extracts from it were printed by the Camden Society, Vol. 35 (1846). On p. 7 of this volume appears "[1508] the twenty third of Henry the Seventh the ninth of July, beinge relyke Sonday, there was sene at Calleys [Calais] an innumerable swarme of whit buttarflyes cominge so thicke as flakes of snowe, that men being a shutynge in Saint Petar's felde without the towne of Calleys cowld not se the towne at fowre of the cloke in the aftarnone, they flewe so highe and so thicke."

I am indebted to Mrs. C. Lenanton for this interesting reference, which undoubtedly refers to a migration of *Pieris brassicae* or *P. rapae*.

In view of the fact that the correction of the calendar had not then been made the date would really be equivalent to about the 19th July in our present reckoning, which fits in well with the migrations that occur today (see p. 189).

1553.

John Sleidan (Sleidanius) in his "General History of the Reformation of the Church" (first published 1555), English edition 1689, book 25, p. 586, writes as follows about the funeral of Maurice, Duke of Saxony, who died on 11th July, 1553, "When the body of Maurice was carried through Leypsick to be buried, Joaachimus Carerarius made a funeral oration in commendation of him, enumerating also the prodigies which preceded his death, observing that drops of blood were found upon the leaves of some trees . . . and in truth as to what concerns the drops of blood, they were observed in many places (and amongst the rest at Strasburg) to be found frequently in the beginning of July fallen upon herbs, the leaves of trees, stones and tiles of Then there was a vast flight of butterflies, and there were some that were of opinion that these drops of blood proceeded from them; but the others thought they were presages of something that was to happen." The drops of blood appear to indicate a local emergence of large numbers of insects from the chrysalis. The "large flights" might possibly have been migrations, and again the date corresponds with the time of migration of the Cabbage Whites in Germany (see p. 189).

1752.

According to Esper (1777, p. 136) Linnaeus is said to have recorded that *Vanessa cardui* was very abundant at Upsala in Sweden in 1752. No reference is given and I have not been able to trace the original. Linnaeus refers briefly to the abundance in *Fauna Suecica* (2):33, but this is later than Esper's reference.

1803.

Haworth in his Lepidoptera Britannica (1803) p. 28, commenting on the appearance in England of Vanessa antiopa, writes: "There is something very extraordinary in the periodical but irregular appearance of this species, Papilio edusa (Colias hyale of this work) and Pap. cardui. They are plentiful all over the kingdom in some years, after which antiopa in particular will not be seen by anyone for eight, ten or more years, and then appears as plentifully as before. To suppose they come from the Continent is an idle conjecture, because the English specimens [of antiopa] are easily distinguished from all others by the superior whiteness of their borders. Perhaps the eggs in this climate, like the seeds of some vegetable, may occasionally lie dormant for several years and not hatch until some extraordinary but undiscovered coincidence awakes them into active life."

1827.

One of the earliest of records of butterfly migration in the tropics is by L. Guilding (1827), who writes: "A species of *Colias* was lately sent to me from Trinidad, which was observed in a continued flight of thousands traversing that island from west to east. They were also observed at sea in the neighbouring Gulf."

The species was undoubtedly a Catopsilia (Phochis) and probably P. statira, which I observed myself in large numbers migrating across Trinidad from east to west ninety years later, in September and October 1918 (1919, Williams, Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. 1919: 76).

It may be interesting to add to these records the following extract from a Creole song from the West Indies, sent to me by Mrs. B. C. Scott. It was told to her in the island of Haiti by a Jamaican negro cook and relates to migrating yellow butterflies known as "Papillon St. Jean."

"A la femme marcher
A la femme marcher
Femme n'en marcher
Comme yo dit papillons
La St. Jean
Vinir pran paquet
Et t'ou allez."

Mrs. Scott sends as a rough translation:—

"Like the marching peasant women,
Yes, the lines of walking women,
The women who keep on walking,
Like the Butterflies called
St. John;
Come, take up your bundles,
[and keep moving]
to wherever you are going."

III. HISTORY OF BRITISH IMMIGRANTS.

By G. F. COCKBILL.

In his monograph on *The Migration of Butterflies*, Williams (1930b) pointed out the value of a historical survey of the British migrant Lepidoptera, and also emphasised that in Britain there was a unique opportunity for such a study because of the wealth of entomological and natural history journals in which were recorded the observations of collectors dating back a hundred years or more.

In 1937, Grant made a historical study of the Hawk moth C. lineata Fab. This work showed such possibilities that it was decided to extend the survey

to include all the major British immigrants.

Sources of information.

The information was collected from entomological periodicals, general periodicals and Proceedings and Transactions of Natural History Societies. About eight hundred volumes were consulted and about fifty thousand records have been extracted, relating to forty species considered to be regular immigrants to Britain.

It is not practical to include in this paper all the references to the data because of their bulk, but they are available for consultation at the Entomo-

logical Department at Rothamsted Experimental Station.

Sources of error.

- 1. In collecting information from old journals there is always the possibility that some evidence has been overlooked, but the survey has included all the major British entomological periodicals since 1824, so that this error is believed to be at a minimum.
- 2. There is not much likelihood of errors in the data due to misidentification of species, since, apart from the fact that the British migrant Lepidoptera are fairly distinctive species, the field Lepidopterists, who are mainly responsible for the data, have always taken a pride in their ability to identify species correctly, and the rivalry that arose maintained a high standard of efficiency. Furthermore some magazines demanded inspection of a rare capture for verification.
- 3. There is a source of error arising from the fact that certain insects have at times enjoyed almost a fashionable interest among Lepidopterists during the past century, and consequently received increased attention in the literature until the interest waned. However, the rare migrant species have always been of sufficient interest to have been fully recorded whenever they occurred.
- 4. It is to be expected that rare occurrences tend to be recorded more fully than commonplace events. Thus rare insects, and conspicuous abundances or absences of common species, will be recorded; while normal abundances of the commoner species may receive less attention in the literature. To take an extreme case, it is likely that almost every capture or observation of D. plexippus in Britain has been recorded. On the other hand, P. brassicae is mentioned only when it becomes a particular pest, or when crops are singularly free from it; when there is no mention of P. brassicae in the literature it means that there is a normal abundance of the insect, and not that it is absent.
- 5. The number of entomologists has increased as time has passed, and a corresponding increase in the number of observations might be expected. It must be borne in mind, however, that while the number of entomologists has

increased, their interests have become more diverse, and that whereas formerly Entomology was almost synonymous with the collection of Lepidoptera, it has now a far wider significance. The result is that the number of Lepidopterists contributing records to the literature of migrant insects does not appear to have been greatly affected until quite recently.

A special instance of this type of error is shown in the increased interest in migration of Lepidoptera since 1931, due to the activities of the Insect Immigration Committee of the South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies. In this case, so numerous have the records of migrant Lepidoptera become that they must be considered separately from the previous records, so as not

to throw the survey out of balance.

In spite of these apparently formidable errors, it is considered that there is still left a basis for a comparative analysis of species' abundances, and that the large bulk of data available in the past literature, if used discriminately, will yield valuable information. It must be emphasised that the numbers of insects obtained by this method are samples of the population, and give little, if any information of the absolute numbers of immigrants.

Method of grading abundances.

The recorded numbers of each species have been summed up as monthly and yearly totals. In order to compare the abundances of species readily, the annual totals for each species have been divided into six geometrically related grades. The grade of least abundance being Grade 1, and that of greatest abundance being Grade 6. In this way, abundances of rare and of regular migrants can be compared with due consideration for their particular degree of commonness.

Roughly speaking, the grades correspond to the following common verbal descriptions.

Grade.

1. Very rare or absent.

2. Rare.

3. Not rare.

Grade.

4. Common.

5. Very common.

6. Quite unusually abundant.

Each description is of course taken as applying to the particular insect concerned. Thus only 25 V. cardui recorded in a year would be "rare" but the same number of D. plexippus would be "quite unusually abundant."

The highest annual total recorded for each species has been amplified by fitting a sliding scale, which gives a 10% amplification at a maximum of 10 insects and a 50% increase at a maximum of 10,000 insects in one year. This device allows the highest recorded annual total to fall near the mean of Grade 6. Without amplification this would represent the extreme limit of the grade. The system also provides for the inclusion of higher totals than have yet been recorded, without upsetting the grading.

In addition, the amplification at higher levels tends to counteract the error of under-estimation of observers when large numbers of insects are seen; and at lower levels to compensate for the fact that when there is only a small immigration, the records tend to be limited by the numbers of insects, but when large immigrations occur, they tend to be limited by the number of observers.

In the first instance, when there is a very small immigration an increase in observers would probably have little effect on the number of insects recorded, but in the second case, when great numbers of insects are about, an increase in the numbers of observers would greatly affect the numbers of insects recorded.

In the case of the regular immigrants, the grades are arrived at by dividing the logarithm of the amplified total of the year of greatest abundance into six equal divisions. The corresponding antilogs, are obtained, and the yearly totals are provided with an index number, according to the grade in which each falls.

In the case of the rare migrants, Grade 1 is taken to be an absence of insects, and the range from 1 insect to the amplified maximum total is divided into five geometrically related grades. In taking Grade 1 as 0 insects, the assumption is made that an absence of records meant an absence of insects, and is to be regarded as being of the same category as an extreme rarity of the regular migrants, among which Grade 1 may include a very small number of insects, never more than 4, however, even in the most abundant species.

This method of arranging the annual totals into grades in geometrical proportion also makes it necessary that errors accompanying any year's total would have to be large to cause it to be placed in the wrong grade.

To take two examples (Table 1), C. croccus is representative of a common migrant and A. lathonia of a rare migrant.

The maximum annual total of records of C. croceus was 8778 in 1892. This

TABLE 1.

Method of grading a common and a rare immigrant for annual abundance.

Species	Maxi- mum	Amph-		-		Grades		
77	Annual Total	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6
C. croceus . A. lathonia .	8,778 50	13,180 67	0-4	5-23 1-2	24-114 3 5	115-558 6-12	559-2,710 13-29	2,711-13,180 30-67

figure, when amplified, became 13,180, which gave six logarithmic grades as shown. Grade 1 included 0-4 insects. The highest annual total of A. lathonia was 50 in 1872; when amplified this total became 67. The grades are shown in Table 1 with Grade 1 being 0 insects.

The maximum annual totals and grade range of all species are shown in Table 2. The totals are the highest for the period 1824 to 1939 except in the cases of *P. napr., V. cardur, V. atalanta* and *P. gamma*, where they are the highest for the period 1824 to 1931.

In Table 3 the total monthly records for each species from 1824 to 1939 and the grand totals are shown. The grand totals of *P. rapae* and *P. gamma* are given for the period 1824 to 1931 only. The totals for the months where peaks of abundance occur are shown in heavy type. It will be seen that in some cases there are two peaks, one in spring and the other in late summer.

Table 4 (A-D) shows the annual totals of all species for the period 1824 to 1931. Absences of records are shown by dashes. The species are arranged in families.

Figs. 1, 2, 3 and 4 show the grade indices of the Butterflies, Hawk-moths, Noctuids and miscellaneous species respectively in the form of histograms. A dotted vertical line indicates the year when the records for each species began. The years 1857 and 1931, between which most of the correlations were

calculated (see p. 254), are marked by a dotted vertical line passing through all species. In all these figures the base line represents Grade 1.

Constant reference will be made later to the above diagrams and tables.

History of the Species.

Danaus plexippus (fig. 1).

This immigrant from America is fully dealt with on p. 174 and will not be commented upon here.

Nymphalis antiopa (fig. 1).

In 1828, two were taken. It has appeared fairly regularly since then (Table 4) but usually in small numbers as shown by the preponderance of Grades 2 and 3 in fig. 1. It has been unrecorded in 18 years. An exceptional

Table 2.

Maximum annual records and range of grades for British Immigrants, 1824–1939.

	Max.				Grade		
	total	1	2	3	4	5	6
P. rapae	3,051	0-4	5-13	14-66	67-270	271-1,096	1,097-4,467
P. napi (to 1931) .	600	0-3	4-9	10-29	30-87	88-275	276-851
P. daplidice	35	0	1-2	3-4	59	10-20	21-44
C. croceus	8,778	()-4	5 -23	24-114	115-558	559-2,710	2,711-13,180
C. hyale	2,203	0-3	4-14	15-56	57-218	219-841	842-3,236
V. cardui (to 1931).	3,281	0-4	5-16	17-68	69-279	280-1,143	1,144-4,677
V. ata'anta (to 1931)	2,114	0-3	4-14	15-54	55-208	209-794	795-3,020
N. antiopa	436	0	1-3	4-12	13-45	46-161	162575
A. lathonia	50	0	1-2	3-5	6-12	13-29	30-67
C. semiargus	20	O	1	2-3	4-7	8-13	14-26
D. plexippus	37	0	1-2	3-4	5-10	11-22	23-50
L. exigua	315	0	1-3	4-11	12-38	39-131	132-447
C. ambigua	310	0-2	3-7	8-20	21-58	59-158	159 -44 0
H. armigera	28	0	1-2	3-4	5-8	9-17	18 -3 8
M. peltigera	42	0-1	2-3	4-7	8-14	15-28	29-56
A. ipsilon	2,700	0-3	4-15	16-61	62 - 245	246-980	981-3,890
P. porphyrea	1,020	0-3	4-11	12-38	39-127	128-429	430-1,445
L. albipuncta	77	0-2	3-5	6-10	11-21	22-46	47-99
L. vitellina	76	0	1-2	3-6	7-15	16-39	40-99
L. unipuncta	146	ŏ	1-2	3-8	9-24	25-71	72-209
C. fraxini	9	ő	1 i	2°	3-4	5-7	8-12
P. gamma (to 1931)	3,331	0-4	5-16	17–69	70-288	289-1,189	1,190-4,898
A. atropos	86	0-2	3-4	5–10	11-23	24-51	52-114
H. convolvuli	681	0-3	4-9	10-30	31-96	97-304	305-955
C. galri	71	0	1-2	3-6	7-14	15-36	37-89
C. livornica	142	Ō	1-2	3-8	9-24	25-70	71-204
H. celerio	41	Ö	1-2	3-5	6–10	11-24	25-54
M. stellatarum .	1,078	0 -3	411	12-38	39–131	132-446	447-1,514
U. pulchella	49	0	1-2	3–5	6-12	13-28	29-66
L. salicis	500	0-2	3-8	9-26	27-77	78-231	232-690
R. sacraria	33	0	1-2	3-4	5-9	10-20	21-44
N. obstrpata	28	0-1	2-3	4-6	7-11	12-20	21-38
N. noctuella	1,570	0-3	4-13	14-47	48-173	174-631	632-2,290
H. ferrugalis	230	0-2	3-6	7-16	17-40	41-103	104-263

1824–1939.	
Immigrants, e.	-
and grand total of British I Peak months in heavy type	
nd grand tot Peak months	
Monthly total records and grand total of British In Peak months in heavy type.	
Monthly t	
	-

Grand	19,754 7,481 366 47,101 6,525 1,011 100 100 29 7	971 898 136 196 6,031 2,232 2,232 2,634 195 103 103 103 103 103 103 103 103 103 103	877 5,184 111 276 695 271 70 5,610	231 1,597 101 250 4,278 1,138
No date	23.23.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.3	249 114 30 33 33 440 113 102 4573 4573	250 1,116 53 53 88 88 57 1,856	23 60 33 85 52 52 53 53 53 53 53 53 53 53 53 53 53 53 53
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year occurred in 1872, when there were 436 recorded. The next highest total was 47 in 1880. Here is a clear instance that although the number of observers has certainly increased since 1872, the records have not shown any corresponding increase, which suggests that a high proportion of the insects has been recorded, and that this number is largely independent of the number of observers. Even after 1931, when the S.E.U.S.S. began an intensive search for migrants, the records have not shown any increase.

The species has occurred in Britain throughout the 12 months, August and September being the peak months (Table 3). It is outstanding among the British migrant butterflies in that most of the records are from the eastern portion of Britain, from Orkney to the south coast of England, strongly suggesting that the migrations come from the east, perhaps from Scandinavia.

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Fig. 1.—Annual abundance, in six grades, of British Immigrant Butterflies, 1824-1931.

Vanessa cardui (fig. 1).

The first records to come into this survey were in 1825. From that date to 1887 there were 30 years with no records, but since 1887 there has not been a year without mention of the species. It has occurred in all parts of Britain and in every month of the year (Table 3). There are, however, very few records during the winter months December to February. The grand total of records was 41,535 insects, and of these only 18 were reported in the winter months, in 11 out of 115 years. This is less than 1 in 2000 of the recorded individuals and even this probably represents too high a proportion, as "Painted Ladies" in winter are much more likely to attract attention than in summer. The summary of monthly totals, Table 3, shows two peak months, June and August, indicating that there are either two immigrations or that the second peak marks the brood resulting from the first immigration.

A contingency table giving the relation between "earliness" and "abundance" is shown in Table 5. The "early" migrants are considered as those occurring before June, and an "abundant year" is taken as being Grade 5 or 6. In each square the observed results are to the upper left and the expected,

on the hypothesis of no relation, to the lower right. In all subsequent contingency tables this arrangement will be followed.

The evidence shows that there were 31 years of abundance and 44 not abundant. Also, in 39 years the immigrants were early and in 36 they were late. If there were no correlation, in 16·1 years "abundant" would occur with "early," and in 21·1 years "late" would occur with "not abundant." The observed values show that "abundant and early" occur together in 23 years, and "late and not abundant" in 28, both considerably higher than the calculated. The values for "late and abundant" and "early and not abundant" are correspondingly lower than expected. The χ^2 test of significance calculated from these differences is 9·0, which gives a probability which is smaller than 0·01, a result which is certainly significant; otherwise, that there is less than 1 chance in 100 that this result has arisen by chance. The inference is that in any year early appearance of V cardui would most likely be followed by a season of abundance, and that a late appearance would be followed by a season of small numbers.

TABLE 5.
Relation between earliness and abundance in V. cardui (1865–1939).

				Abu	ındant	Not ab	oundant	Total
Early	•	•	•	23	16-1	16	22.9	39
Late	•	•	•	8	14.9	28	21.1	36
То	tal	•			31	4	4	75

This result might be explained by assuming that Britain is on the fringe of the distribution area of $V.\ cardui$, the area of origin being north Africa. In years of abundance, the insects would spread farther afield more rapidly than in other years, and Britain would receive migrants earlier in the year, and would be well inside the fringe of the distribution area of the insect. As a result, the intensity of insects would be greater in such years. Also, the second brood, mainly homebred and dependent on the spring immigrations, would be increased by an early and abundant invasion.

Vanessa atalanta.

This is a regular migrant and has been recorded continuously with only a two-year gap since 1881. The relative abundance is shown in fig. 1.

For the period 1857-1931 there occur 19 years in Grade 5, 17 in Grade 4, and 19 in Grade 1. This last includes 13 years in which no records were found, which, however, cannot be taken to mean that no insects occurred as the species is generally common. If these years of no records are excluded from the total, it will be seen that the species occurs most frequently in intensity corresponding to Grade 4 and 5.

The annual totals in this species were arrived at by a process little short of guesswork. Its justification lies in the fact that the numbers obtained are not regarded in any way as being absolute and are used only for comparison

of abundance. An arbitrary figure of 30 was taken to interpret such descriptive accounts as "common," "frequent" or "numerous," and 120 to interpret "abundant," "very common" or any such superlative description. If a numerical estimate were given, it was utilised. The totals so obtained did not give rise to any anomalous findings.

These arbitrary numbers were not included in the table of occurrences

month by month (Table 3).

From 1824 to 1875 the butterfly was recorded in only 16 years, but since 1875 there were only 4 years when it was not mentioned. Since 1892, the annual totals have all been higher than the range of Grade 1. The records since this date would seem to be a truer estimate of the occurrences of the species.

Cyaniris semiargus.

The records of this insect are unusual in that the largest number reported in any year (20) was in 1825. It has only occurred in 25 years out of 115 (Table 4).

The majority of the records are for June, the range being from May to August (Table 3).

Cosmolyce boeticus.

This insect is another sporadic visitor. As shown in Table 4, it was recorded in 1859, and has been recorded in only 13 years since. The largest total taken in any year was 3, with the possibility that 9 were observed in 1926 since the records show the capture of three specimens in Torquay, Devon, in September and it was also seen there on six occasions during the month. The records are mainly from the south of England.

The numbers were not sufficiently large for the inclusion of this species in

the correlations (see later).

Everes argiades.

This is a very rare visitor to Britain. Only seven records have been found. The first was that of two taken in 1874 at Frome, Somerset. These specimens, a male and a female, are now in the Dale Collection, Hope Museum, Oxford. This point is worth mentioning, since in 1885 three specimens were captured and were reported as being the first British specimens. The only other captures were in 1921 and 1931. The insect has been taken in Somerset, Dorset and Hampshire and in Sussex; four in August, one in September and two without information as to the month of capture.

This species has not been included in the correlations.

Argynnis lathonia (fig. 1).

The Queen of Spain Fritillary is about as frequent and as numerous as $P.\ daplidice$. The longest absence of records was the period of eight years between 1902 and 1910. The highest annual total was 50 insects in 1872 (Table 4). The records range from May to November, with August and September as the months of maximum abundance (Table 3). Most records are from South and South-east England, with a doubtful record in 1834 from Northumberland. One was reported from Scarborough in 1868.

Colias croceus (fig. 1).

The first record to come into this survey was that of a capture by B. Morris at Worcester in 1825. The following year it was taken in abundance at Charmouth, Dorset. In the period from 1825 to 1939, i.e. 115 years, there were only 15 years when the species was not recorded, and 15 years when it was abundant, that is, Grade 5 or 6. From fig. 1 it will be seen that the most frequent grade indices are 3 and 4, indicating that a medium abundance of this species is usual.

The species tends to be most abundant during August, as shown in Table 3, but has been reported as early as February in 1857 and 1935, and as late as December in 1878 and 1896. The rise in numbers to a peak in August indicates a steady influx of migrants culminating in the August abundances, rather than a spring invasion followed by a late summer invasion. The only years in which there is clear evidence of two distinct immigrations, or of one invasion and a local bred brood, were 1877 and 1938, in which cases about nine hundred more insects were recorded in June than in July, while in August the numbers recorded were over 5300 and 2400 respectively more than in July.

Table 6.

Relation between earliness and abundance in *Colias croceus*, 1830–1939.

-								
				Abu	ındant	Not ab	undant	Total
Early	•		•	12	3.7	15	23 3	27
Late	•	•	•	3	113	80	71.7	83
Tot	al				15	9	5	110

An attempt was made to see if there was in this species any relationship between the appearance of early spring migrants and years of abundance. Early spring migrants were regarded as being those occurring before June, and years of abundance those indexed by 5 or 6. Table 6 shows a contingency table to illustrate the result.

In 110 years, from 1830 to 1939, there were 27 years with early immigrants and 83 with late, and 15 years of abundance and 95 of non-abundance. In the absence of correlation it would be expected that 15/110 of the "early" years would be abundant and 95/110 would be "not abundant." The expected totals are shown. χ^2 is 7·2 and is significant at 0·01 level. The observed totals of "early occurrence with abundant" and "late with not abundant" are significantly higher than the expected, and the observed totals of "late and abundant" and "early and not abundant" significantly lower. The inference is that early spring migrants are in general forerunners of a large immigration, and that a late appearance precedes a season with small numbers. Most of the records are from the south and south-east coasts and indicate that C, croccus arrives via France.

Colias hyale (fig. 1).

This species was recorded as being taken in 1826. Since that year it has appeared fairly regularly (see Table 4) but there have been several groups of years without records. Thus, from 1827 to 1830 inclusive, and from 1837 to 1841, 1850 to 1854, 1861 to 1864 (only 1 record), 1878 to 1884 (only 1 record), 1905 to 1910 (only 2 separate records), and 1923 to 1927, the species was not recorded. These periods of absence do not show any obvious periodicity. Grades 5 or 6 have occurred 9 times, and complete absence of records 45 times, out of the 114 years between 1826 and 1939. The species has been most abundant in Britain in August, and shows very little evidence of a double immigration (Table 3). In 1900 there were records of 36 insects in June, 15 in July, and 1758 in August. In 1901 there were 11 in June, 1 in July and 307 in August. Excluding these two years from the monthly summary, Table 3, it will be seen that the numbers show a steady increase from March and April (one record each) to August. There is one record of a capture as late as November in 1912.

TABLE 7.

Relation between earliness and abundance in Colias hyale, 1826–1939.

				Abu	ndant	Not at	oundant	Total
Early	•	•	•	3	0.8	7	9.2	10
Late	•	•	•	6	8.2	98	95.8	104
Total	•	•	•		9	1	05	114

The records are mainly from the south and south-east counties, and indicate that the insects come via France.

A contingency table, Table 7, was drawn up on the lines of that of C. croccus and shows that the figures observed are not very different from the calculated ones. The test for significance shows that $\chi^2 = 4.4$, which is significant at 1:20 but not at 1:50. It is therefore possible, but not certain, that C. hyale appears earlier in its years of greater abundance.

Pontia daplidice (fig. 1).

This species, while never numerous in Britain, appears fairly regularly. The longest absence from Britain since 1826 (the first record collected) was the period of 8 years from 1844 to 1851. The total number of insects recorded between 1826 and 1939 was 366. This includes one record for 1906, where it was stated that over 200 were seen on the Dover cliffs. Apart from this, the highest annual total was 35 in 1872, the year when N. antiopa was also very abundant.

Most of the records are from south and south-east England. The most northerly was one in 1852 from Whittlesea Mere, near Liverpool. It is most likely that this insect arrives from France.

The monthly totals, Table 3, show that the earliest records were in May and latest in October, with August as the month when most occurred.

The Cabbage Whites.

The records of the three species *P. rapae*, *P. napi* and *P. brassicae* are complicated by the fact that they are normally present in numbers in Britain and tend to be reported only in the years of absence or of special abundance. In the case of *P. brassicae*, this is particularly noticeable.

Picris brassicae (fig. 1).

The records of this species are not very reliable. In assessing the group indices of the years, the records were scanned, and were roughly placed in three categories: scarce, moderate and abundant, approximating to grades 2, 4 and 6. Any absence of records was regarded as indicating a moderate abundance. This method was not expected to be of great value, but on carrying out correlations with its related species, *P. rapae* and *P. napi*, it was found that the results obtained, although not as high as might be expected, were significant, and pointed to an observable fact that these species tend to be abundant together (see p. 257).

Pieris napi (fig. 1).

The records of *P. napi* are not of much use for this survey until 1880, since when they have been fairly consistent. Fig. 1 shows that the most frequent grades are 4, 5 and 6. If the 10 years without records are not counted, the preponderance of the higher grades is more obvious. The species occurs almost everywhere in Britain and apart from one record, in January 1860, appears to be limited to the period March to October, with a peak in August (Table 3).

Preris rapae (fig. 1).

The records of *P. rapae* appear to be consistent since 1857, with the possible exception of 15 years in which there were no records (Table 4). It is very unlikely that in these years there were no *P. rapae* present.

The general abundance can be seen from fig. 1, which shows that if these 15 years without records are not considered, the Grades 3, 4 and 5 are the most frequent. The species has occurred in all months of the year, and all over Britain.

The Hawk-Moths (fig. 2).

The distribution of the hawk-moths in Europe suggests that the British migrants come from the Mediterranean region or from north Africa. Little information can be collected of their flight directions because most of the captures are taken at night over attractive flowers or at light, so that no positive evidence can be provided as in the case of V. cardu or P. brassicae.

Acherontia atropos (fig. 2).

This is one of the most regular British migrant hawk-moths. Since 1831 it has been unrecorded in only 17 years, and since 1857, in only 2 years. It has always been an insect which attracted attention and is usually recorded if seen by any naturalist.

A. atropos has occurred from March (1 specimen) until November, with September and October as the peak months (Table 3). There is a small secondary peak in June, which might suggest that there are two immigrations.

In this survey the larval and pupal stages have not been included. There have been more reports of larvae than of adults, but since the appearance of numbers of larvae throw little light on the numbers of the parents, they were omitted from this work. The most frequent grades are Grades 1 to 3, showing the tendency of the species to occur usually only in small numbers (fig. 2).

Herse convolvuli (fig. 2).

This hawk-moth has been reported in Britain with few intervals since 1824 (Table 4). It has been unrecorded in 14 years between 1824 and 1939. It has occurred in all months except January, February and May, with Sentember as the neak month (Table 3). The records of occurrences are

September as the peak month (Table 3). The records of occurrences are distributed all over Britain with a preponderance in the south and southeastern part of England.

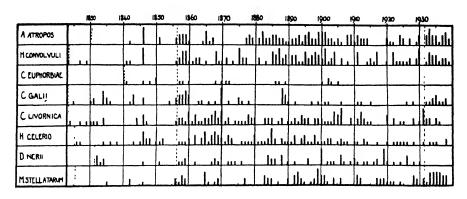


Fig. 2.—Annual abundance, six grades, of British 1mmigrant Hawk-Moths (SPHINGIDAE), 1824-1939.

From fig. 2 it can be seen that from 1857 to 1931 Grades 1, 2 and 3 were most frequent. In only three of these years was the species unrecorded. Although it is a very frequent visitor, it occurs in small rather than large numbers.

The records since 1931 show no marked difference from those of previous years, indicating that the numbers of insects recorded are not limited by the numbers of observers.

Celerio euphorbiae.

This species is a very rare visitor to Britain. From 1841 (the first record) to 1940, we have found records of only 11 adults and 33 larvae. The numbers were too small to include this species in the correlations given later. The months of occurrence of the adult are June to October, but 2 larvae were taken in March 1907. The records occur as far afield as Banffshire in Scotland, Cheshire, Norfolk and Somerset.

Celerio galii (fig. 2).

This species has been taken more frequently as a larva than as an adult. The first record since 1824 was one taken in 1825.

It has appeared at intervals since then for periods ranging from a single year to a maximum of seven years from 1854 to 1860, and eight years from 1932 to 1939. The largest number of adults recorded in any one year was 71 in 1870. There were also 17 larvae recorded in the year. In 1888, the species was again abundant, when 64 adults were recorded: in that year, over 1100 larvae were recorded. After the 1870 immigration none was recorded in 1871 and only one in 1872. After the 1888 immigration, when so many larvae occurred, there were 7 adults and 30 larvae recorded in 1889 and only 1 adult in 1890. It is possible that the 1888 immigration left progeny which became adult in 1889, but did not persist.

From Table 4 it can be seen that since 1857 it has been absent more frequently than present, and that in the years when it has occurred, 1 or 2

specimens is the most frequent number.

The species has occurred over Scotland and England. The adults have been most abundant in August, but have occurred from June to October. Apart from one record of 10 larvae in March 1892, the larvae and pupae have occurred also from June to October with peaks in August and September (Table 3).

D. galii is an example of a species that is capable of reaching Great Britain from Europe early enough in the year to produce a brood of larvae. The onset of winter, however, is so rapid that either the larvae do not reach maturity, or, reaching maturity, are unable to hibernate as adults.

Hippotion celerio (fig. 2).

Though not numerous, this species has occurred fairly frequently in Britain, and has been taken throughout the country, most of the records being from the south of England.

It has occurred in all months except January and February, with September as the month of maximum abundance (Table 3). Since 1857 there have been 20 years in which the species did not occur. The years of maximum abundance were 1865, with 27 insects, and 1885 with 41 insects (Table 4).

Fig. 2 shows that the most frequent grade is Grade 2, i.e. 1 or 2 individuals.

Daphnis nerii (fig. 2).

This hawk-moth has occurred sporadically in Britain as adult and larva. In 1832, four adults and two larvae were taken. It has been absent in 57 years out of the 100 years from 1832 to 1931, and the maximum total in any year is 6 in 1919. Occurrences of *D. nerii* have been reported from Aberdeenshire to Devonshire, including Lancashire, Yorkshire, Midlands, Norfolk and S. and S.E. England.

It has occurred from May to October, with September as the peak month (Table 3).

Celerio livornica (fig. 2).

This species has been fully dealt with by Grant (1937) and will not be discussed here except in its correlations with other pecies (p. 257).

Macroglossum stellatarum (fig. 2).

This has occurred in every month of the year, the period of maximum abundance being June to September with a slight peak in July. The appear-

ance of the moth during the winter months suggests that in isolated cases it may survive throughout the winter. That it does not establish itself in any numbers after such hibernation can be inferred from the contingency table, Table 8.

This table tests the assumption that abundant years follow winters in which the moth occurred. Abundance is taken as being a year in which Grade 5 or 6 occurred, and winter is taken as being November, December, January and February.

Table 8.

Relation between years of abundance and records in the previous winter for Macroglossum stellatarum, 1865–1939.

			Abı	ındant	Not a	bundant	Total
In winter	•	•	2	1.12	10	10-88	12
Not in winter	•	•	5	5.88	58	57.12	63
Total				7		68	75

The numbers are almost exactly what would be expected if there was no relation between abundance and appearance in the previous winter. There is an indication that years of abundance are followed by occurrences of the insects in the winter months as the following contingency table shows (Table 9). Years of abundance are compared with occurrences of the insects in the following winter months. The actual occasions when it occurred in winter are 5 and the expected, 1·1. The value of χ^2 is 13·4, which is highly significant. However, these numbers are too small for the result to be regarded as a proof.

Table 9.

Relation between years of abundance and records in the following winter for M. stellatarum, 1865-1939.

		Abui	ndant	Not at	oundant	Total
In following winter	•	5	1.1	7	10.9	12
Not in following winter	$\cdot \mid$	2	5.9	61	57.1	63
Total		,	7	(38	75

There is a high proportion of Grade 1 as shown by fig. 2. In 19 years out of the 38 in Grade 1, the species was not reported. It can be seen that this species tends to occur more frequently in small numbers.

Noctuids.

Agrotis ipsilon (fig. 3).

This insect is generally regarded as being native in Britain but supplemented by immigrations. The records show that it was found in 1831, and

in the 109 years, 1831-1939, it has been recorded in 64 years, and has not been recorded in 45 years (Table 4).

The records reflect the activities of the South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies in that, since 1931, they show two years of extreme abundance, greatly in excess of anything that had been previously recorded.

Well over half of the records are for August. The only months for which

records were not obtained were January and December (Table 3).

Peridromia porphyrea (= saucia) (fig. 3).

This is an indigenous species that had not been reported in large numbers in Britain until 1938, when over a thousand insects were recorded. Since 1857, there has been a gap of 7 years in the records between 1882 and 1888,

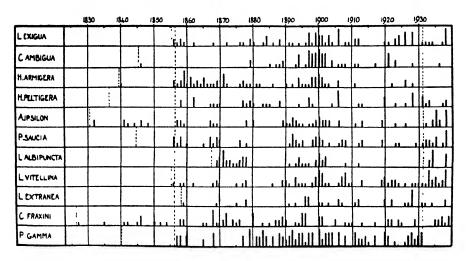


Fig. 3.— Annual abundance, in six grades, of British Immigrant Noctuldae, 1824-1939.

but apart from this the longest gap is 3 years. There is no evidence of a double peak in the monthly records. The month of greatest abundance is September (Table 3). It has occurred throughout Britain.

Leucania unipuncta (= extranea) (fig. 3).

This is the "Army Worm" of America, where it does great damage to crops in some years.

The first record in Britain appeared in 1859. It has occurred sporadically since then, having been present in 24 years out of 81. There is little information in the records as to the months of maximum abundance. Table 3 shows that September has the highest total, but, since the year 1928 contributes over half of the September totals, most of those of October and November and all of those of December, not much can be inferred from the remaining years.

Captures are mainly from the south and south-west of England, from South Wales and the south of Ireland.

Leucania vitellina (fig. 3).

This species has occurred frequently but in small numbers since 1856 when it was first recorded in Britain. It has been present in 47 years and absent in 37 years. The years of greatest abundance were 1900, when 58 specimens were recorded, 1933 with 41 specimens and 1938 with 76 specimens.

The seasonal range is short. Apart from two records in 1869 and 1870, it has occurred in August, September and October only, with September as

the peak month (Table 3).

On 26th September, 1938, 2 specimens were recorded flying to the south at the Sunk Light Vessel, off Felixstowe, Suffolk,

Leucania albipuncta (fig. 3).

The first certain record of this insect in Britain was that of a capture at Folkestone, Kent, in August 1868, although there is a report of one captured in "1862 or 1864 at Yaxley" (? Hunts). The records show an unusual fluctuation (Table 11). From 1868 to 1879 the species occurred every year; from 1880 until 1890 there were no records; from 1891 until 1905 there were only two years in which it did not occur, and from 1906 to 1931 it occurred in only 4 years. Since 1931 it has occurred in 5 years, and has been unrecorded in 3 years, despite the activities of the Insect Immigration Committee of the S.E.U.S.S.

These gaps in the records are not explained by gaps in the occurrences of periodicals, which indicates that had there been occurrences during these years, there was no lack of observers or of opportunities for publishing observations.

It has occurred in Britain from June to October, the month of maximum abundance being August with 169 individuals and September with 84 (Table 3). There is evidence here of a single immigration arriving during the summer months and disappearing before winter.

The species has occurred mainly in south and south-east England, the most northerly record being one from the Norfolk Broads in 1895.

Leucania loreyi.

This is a very rare immigrant to Britain. Only six specimens have been recorded since 1862, when two were recorded in October. Two have been taken in September, three in October and the month of capture of the other was not given. The records are from Sussex, Devon and Co. Cork, Eire. The numbers recorded are too small to include in the correlation tables.

Leucania l-album.

Until 1933-1939, this rare immigrant had been recorded in only six years in Britain, the total number of insects being nine. Since 1932, this has been brought up to 264, of which one occurred in July, 256 in September, three in October and four were without the month being stated (Table 3). The records are mainly from the southern counties of England. This species also is not included in the correlation tables.

Caradrina ambigua (fig. 3).

In 1879 there was a record of four specimens being taken at Brighton which were said to be the first British specimens. However, a previous record existed of two specimens taken at Brixton in 1846.

Since 1879, it has been unrecorded in 36 years and present in 25 years. The maximum occurrences were in the years 1879 and 1900 (Table 4). During the period 1896 and 1902, it was recorded in several months during a year, but since then has been recorded in only one month of any year (Table 3). The earliest occurrence was in May and the last occurrence in October, with most in August.

All records in Britain are from the south coast, in the counties of Hamp-

shire, Sussex and Kent.

Caradrina exigua (fig. 3).

This was first recorded in Britain in 1856 and has occurred at intervals since then. The longest unbroken series of records was for the 9 years from 1896 to 1904, and the next longest of 4 years from 1856 to 1859 inclusive (Table 4).

The sporadic occurrence strongly suggests that it is a migrant. The months of greatest abundance were August, September and October, with a peak in September (Table 3). Apart from the years 1906 and possibly 1938, there is no evidence of a double peak of abundance in the same year. In these two years, more insects were recorded in June than in July. Most of the records are from the south of England, but there are also records from Berwick and from Hartlepool.

Heliothis peltigera (fig. 3).

This has not appeared very frequently in the records. It was recorded in 1837. From then to 1939, a period of 103 years, it was present in 52 years and absent in 51 years. There are periods ranging from one to nine years when it was not recorded (Table 4). Larvae have been recorded in large numbers from May to September.

The monthly totals show a peak in June and another in September, and the species has occurred from January to October, though the January to

March records are obtained from two years only (Table 3).

This species is able to produce a broad during the summer months, but there is very little evidence to show that it can maintain itself in Britain during the winter. There are no records of the larvae or pupae before July or after October. It would appear from the records that it should be regarded as a rare immigrant rather than as a resident.

Heliothis armigera (fig. 3).

This rare immigrant was first recorded in Britain in September 1840. It was not recorded again until 1856. From 1857 to 1903 it was absent in only 15 years, but from 1903 to 1939 it has been reported in only 5 years (Table 4). It was most abundant in 1859 when 28 specimens were recorded. The activities of the Insect Immigration Committee have not influenced the records in any way.

It has been seen as early as June in 3 years, as late as October in 8 years, and the months of maximum records are September and October (Table 3). There is no evidence of a double immigration.

The larva of *H. armigera* is the "Cotton Boll Worm" which damages corn and cotton crops in America and in Africa.

Plusia gamma (fig. 3).

This is a well-known migrant moth, and it has received much notice in the literature since 1879, when, together with $V.\ cardui$, it occurred in extreme abundance throughout Britain. Before 1879, it was mentioned in 9 years

only, of which 3 years had a report of one specimen each (Table 4).

The records of *P. gamma* include many descriptive accounts of the numbers seen. The same system of transforming words into figures was used as for *V. atalanta*, where such terms as "very common," "abundant" and "swarming" were given the arbitrary figure of 120; "common," "very frequent" and "numerous" were given the figure of 30; whenever actual numbers were given they were used as given. Although this system is so arbitrary, it has provided a method of comparing abundances which appears to give consistent results. It has long been known to collectors that *P. gamma* is usually abundant when *V. cardui* is abundant. A correlation of the occurrences of these two species gives a result significant at the 0.01 level (see Table 33).

The monthly totals have been made up to 1932, after which the records became greatly increased owing to the activities of the S.E.U.S.S. These totals (Table 3) show that there are two peaks of abundance, one in May and June and the other in August and September. This fact could be explained either as a double immigration in the year, or as a spring immigration followed by the resulting summer brood. The occurrence of a preponderance of spring flights to the northward and of autumn flights to the south for the years 1933–1936 (Fisher 1938) strongly suggests that the double peaks are partly

at least the result of a double migration.

The distribution of the "Silver Y" in Britain for the years 1933-1936 has been fully dealt with in a paper by K. Fisher (1938). It has been reported in all months of the year except January and February, but there are only two single captures in March (1879 and 1929); two years in which captures were recorded in April (1893 and 1903); and four years in which there were single captures in December.

The main season is therefore from May to October (Table 3). The relative abundance in the different years is shown in fig. 3. Grades 1 and 2 occurred in 35 years, of which 22 years were without records, and Grades 5 and 6 in 17 years. That is, the species was most abundant about half as frequently

as it was least abundant.

Catephia alchymista.

This is extremely rare in Britain. It was first recorded in September 1858, since when it has occurred in only six years, the maximum number in any year being 3 in 1875. In July 1894 two larvae were taken at Eastbourne. Apart from these two instances, all the records have been of single occurrences. Six of the eight adults were recorded in June, and two in September. One record comes from Cleobury Mortimer in Shropshire, one from Essex and the rest from the south coast of England. This is undoubtedly an immigrant reaching England from France. The number of records is too small to include it in the correlations.

Catocala fraxini (fig. 3).

The first record to come into this survey was that of two captures in Kent in 1827. There were a few previous records in England. The records since then are quite regular but few in any year. The highest total in any year

was 9 in the year 1868. After the 1827 record there was a gap of seven years before the next record in 1835. Since then, however, the longest gap without a record was five years. The longest unbroken period of occurrences was the six years 1885 to 1890 inclusive, taking into account the occurrence of two larvae at Southport in 1886 (Table 11).

It has occurred in July, August, September and October with a maximum in September (Table 3). It arrives in Britain in late summer, and does not become established.

Nycterosea obstipata (= flaviata) (fig. 4).

This insect has occurred in Britain in small numbers with frequent periods of absence. In the 75 years from 1857 to 1931 it has been unrecorded in 37 years, single specimens have occurred in 13 years, and the highest total for any year is only 23, in 1899. It has occurred in the months from May to November, and the months of maximum abundance are September and October (Table 3).

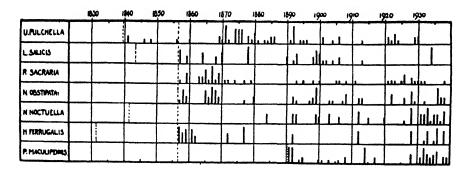


Fig. 4.—Annual abundance, in six grades, of certain British Immigrant Lepidoptera, 1824–1939.

Rhodometra (= Sterrha) sacraria (fig. 4).

The first record of this insect to be included was one taken in September 1857. It has occurred since then in 32 years out of 83.

The records of monthly totals (Table 3) show that most occur in August, and that the range is from April to October.

It has occurred throughout Britain, but is recorded mainly from the southern counties of England.

Utetheisa pulchella (fig. 4).

This is a rare migrant that has appeared in Britain at intervals for periods of from one to four years.

The first record is one taken in 1840. Since that date it has occurred in 36 years, and has been unrecorded in 64 years. The largest number reported in any year is 49 in 1892 (Table 4).

The seasonal range is from May to October, with one record for November. From Table 3 it can be seen that, although the numbers are small, there appears a definite peak in April and May, and another in September and October.

In Britain it has occurred mainly in the South of England, but has been taken as far north as Aberdeen. Blair (1925, *Entomologist* 58:5) has suggested that it might be resident in the Scilly Islands.

Leucoma salicis (fig. 4).

This insect is a resident in Britain but is reinforced at times by immigration. In June 1878, at Harwich, "thousands appeared...having crossed They resembled a fall of snow." At Salzburg, Germany, on 22nd August 1886, "millions were flying from N.E. to S.E. (sic) between 2 and 4 p.m."

Towards the end of August 1900, large numbers were observed about 10

miles off Flushing at about 5 a.m. All were flying to the north-west.

In early July 1929, an immigration was recorded at Southwold, Suffolk.

The occurrences of the moth are shown graphically in fig. 4. The maximum abundances occurred in 1878 and 1934.

It occurs as adults mainly in June, July and August, but in 1908 and 1912 single specimens were recorded in September and in 1933 one occurred in October.

Nomophila noctuella (fig. 4).

This species, although now recognised as a regular migrant, was not well recorded before 1931. Since then, however, very full reports have been collected. It has been noted particularly when it has occurred in abundance with P. gamma and V. cardui. It has occurred in all months except January, February, April and December, but only once in March, once in November and three times in October, so that the main period of occurrence is May to September, with a peak in August and September (Table 3).

It is fairly widespread in Britain. The only record of a definite flight direction was on 20th March 1935, at Round Island Lighthouse, Scilly Islands,

when 6 or 7 were seen flying to the north.

Hapalia ferrugalis (fig. 4).

This is a migrant which is recorded in only 18 years between 1857 and 1931. Of these, single specimens have been recorded in 8 years. highest totals occurred during the years 1857, 1877 and 1936, each with over 200 insects (Table 4).

It has occurred from May to November, with the peak months August and September (Table 3). It has been recorded mainly from the southern counties of England, but also in Scotland, the North of England and in Ireland. In August 1898 and in September 1930, numbers were taken at sea in the Mediterranean.

Plutella maculipennis (fig. 4).

This insect, "The Diamond-Back Moth," causes extensive damage at times to the crucifer crops in Britain. It has occurred sporadically in great swarms mainly along the east coast of Britain, from the Shetlands to Kent.

The records begin as late as 1891. Since then, it has been reported in 22 years. It is quite likely that, as it is not conspicuous, it becomes recorded

only when it occurs in great abundance.

The records were almost entirely descriptive, those since 1931 have been in greater detail than those previous. It appears to occur from May to October, and most frequently in June and August. It has not been included in the correlations.

IV. LEPIDOPTERA OBSERVED AT LIGHTSHIPS OFF THE SOUTH AND EAST COASTS OF ENGLAND, 1932-1939.

By M. E. GIBBS.

The material available consists of records of Lepidoptera appearing at ten light vessels off the south and east coasts of England. Through the activities of

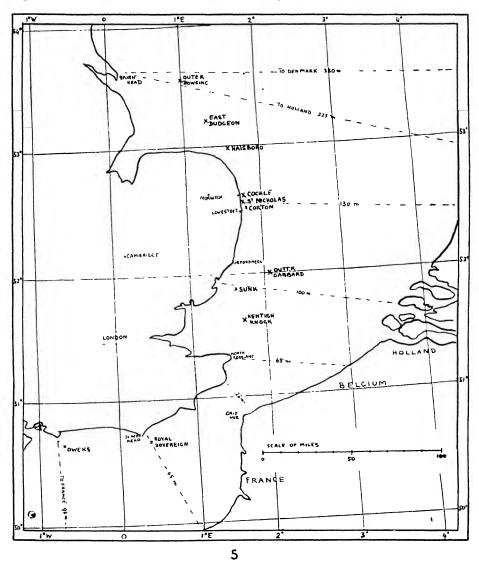


Fig. 5.—Map showing the position of the lightships from which records were received.

the Insect Immigration Committee of the South-Eastern Union of Scientific Societies about three hundred and ninety records have been sent in by various TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 1. (JULY 1942.)

lightship keepers during the seven years 1932–1939, and these were passed on to Rothamsted for study.

The names and positions of the lightships are shown in the map (fig. 5) and in Table 10. The latter gives also the distance from the nearest land and the name of the observers. Our thanks are due to all those voluntary assistants, and to the officials of Trinity House who gave permission for their co-operation.

Naturally records collected in this way are fragmentary; only a few of the lightships assisted, and often some of our best observers were transferred to other localities. Therefore, the number of observations at any lightship

Table 10.

List of lightships with their positions and the names of observers who sent in records.

	Name	Con- traction	Position	Observers
1.	Outer Dowsing.	OD.	30 m. E. of Spurn Head, S. Yorks.	J. W. R. Reeve. H. Maylett.
2.	East Dudgeon.	ED.	22 m. N.E. of Blakeney Pt., N. Norfolk.	S. G. Sharman. J. Audley. W. F. Fuller.
3.	Outer Gabbard.	OG.	20 m. E.S.E. of Orfordness, S. Suffolk.	C. L. R. Turnor.
4.	Haisboro'.	н.	11 m. E.N.E. of Cromer, Norfolk. 9 m. N.E. of Mundesley, Norfolk.	W. F. Willgress. F. England.
5.	Sunk.	S.	10 m. S.E. of Fehystowe, S. Suffolk.	C. L. R. Turnor.
6.	Royal Sovereign.	RS.	7 m. S.E. of Eastbourne, Sussex.	F. J. Morgan. S. G. Rowe.
7.	Owers.	0.	7 m. off Selsea Bill, W. Sussex.	W. F. Willgress. H. G. Hollis.
8.	Corton.	Cn.	3½ m. N.E. of Lowestoft, N. Suffolk.	S. G. Sharman. E. Bulley.
9.	Cockle.	Ce.	2 m. E.N.E. of Yarmouth, Norfolk.	W. F. Willgress.
10.	St. Nicholas.	St. N.	1 m. off Gorleston, S. Norfolk.	S. G. Sharman.

cannot be taken as a measure of the comparative frequence of flights in that neighbourhood. However, the positive evidence obtained always holds good, and much of its value lies in the possibility of correlation with records on land.

In most cases specimens have been sent in with the observations; whenever identification was doubtful the records have not been used. A source of inaccuracy more difficult to correct is that associated with the estimation of the numbers of insects present in a flight: for example, the term "several" has a wide scale of values and may easily vary in its meaning from one observer to another. Data concerning the direction of movement and that relating to the weather conditions are probably unusually accurate as such things help to make up the daily routine of the lightship keepers.

Altogether about 120 species of Lepidoptera have been recorded by the observers. Of these the majority only occurred on very few occasions and their presence may have been accidental. Table 11 shows 85 species which occurred only singly or on not more than three occasions. Of these only 7 (or 1 in 12) were previously considered as, or suspected to be, migrants; these are marked with an asterisk in the table. The others may be considered as possible migrants but a final decision must await further evidence.

TABLE 11.

List of Lepidoptera which were recorded on not more than three occasions at the lightships. * denotes previously considered as, or suspected to be, a migrant.

					, ,
Rhopal	ocera.				
*Nymphalis antiopa					H. 1936 Aug. 26. Cn. 1934 Aug. 21.
*Pieris napi .					Cn. 1935 Aug. 10; 1935 Aug. 22.
-					
Maniola jurtina .					RS. 1933 July 1.
Lucaena phlaeas	•				
Lucaenonsis araiolus	•	•	:	:	Cn. 1935 Aug. 10.
Polyommatus icarys		•	:	•	Cn. 1934 Aug. 16.
Pararge megera . Maniola jurtina . Lycaena phlaeas . Lycuenopsis argiolus Polyommatus icarus	•	•	•	•	111 110 1 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11
Sphingida	E.				
*Acherontia atropos					OD. 1937 Sept. 23. St. N. 1932 Sept. 18.
*Acherontia atropos *Macroglossum stellataru	m				S. 1938 Sept. 25. Cn. 1934 July 6.
*Herse convolvuli .					ED. 1932 Aug. 30. OG. 1939 Aug. 15.
Lathor populi .					Cn. 1935 July 1.
Lathoe populi . M imas tiliae .					Ce. 1935 June 30.
Bon	abyce	s.			•
Leucodonta bicoloria					S. 1938 Aug. 24.
Lophopteryx capucina					H. 1934 Sept. 10.
Asphalia dilutata .	•		•	:	44 1004 37 03
*Leucoma salicis .	•		•		
Malacosoma neustria	•	•	•	•	(1 1000 A 10
Matacosoma neastra	•	•	•	•	
Lasiocampa quercus Philudoria potatoria Gastropacha quercifolia	•	•	•	•	Ce. 1935 July 27.
Philiaoria polatoria	•	•	•	٠	
Gastropacna quercifotia		•	•	٠	St. N. 1938 July 29.
сных динсана .	•	•	•	•	OD. 1935 Aug. 12.
Spilosoma lubrici peda		•	•	•	OG. 1939 July 11.
Spilosoma lutea 🕠 .	•	•	•	•	RS. 1933 July 12.
Erlema lurideola .	•	•	•	•	Cn. 1935 Aug. 10.
Noctu	DATE.				
A patele rumicis .					Ce. 1935 July 16.
	•	•	•	•	OD. 1935 Oct. 3. OG. 1939 July 8. Cn.
Agrotis exclamationis	•	•	•	•	1935 July 1.
<i>t</i>					St. N. 1938 Sept. 24.
Euxoa nigricans .	•	•	•	•	OD. 1935 Aug. 24. Cn. 1935 Aug. 31.
Euxoa tritici Amathes xanthographa	•		•	•	
Amatnes xantnograpna	•	•	•	٠	OD, 1935 Sept. 5. Cn. 1935 July 23.
Diarsia rubi .	•	•	•	•	S. 1939 June 11.
Triphaena comes .	•	•	•	•	OD. 1935 July 6. S. 1938 Aug. 18.
Triphaena orbona	•	•		•	
Mamestra brassicae	•			٠	RS. 1934 July 23.
Hadena trifolii .	•	•	•	٠	St. N. 1938 June 21.
Hadena bierurīs	•	•	•	٠	RS. 1933 Aug. 7. St. N. 1938 Sept. 27.
Apamea sordens .		•	•	•	Cn. 1935, July 10.
A pamea sordens . A pamea secalis .			•		
$Procus\ strigilis$.					RS. 1939 Aug. 19.
Actinotia polydon					St. N. 1938 Aug. 23.
A porophyla australis					
Apamea secalis Procus strigilis Actinotia polydon Aporophyla australis Nonagra typhae Nonagra dissoluta					
					H. 1935 Aug. 12.
Arenostola pygmina					St. N. 1938 Aug. 29.
Arenostola pygmina Arenostola phragmitudis Leucanea pallens Leucanea impura .					OD, 1935 July 23.
Leucanea pallens .					
Leucanea impura					St. N. 1938 Aug. 24.
Meristes triarammica					St. N. 1937 June 16.
*Laphygma exigua					S. 1938 Sept. 26.
Petilampa minima?					RS. 1939 Aug. 23.
Leucanea impura . Meristos trigrammica *Laphygma exigua Petilampa minima ? Amphipyra tragopogania	8				OD. 1933 Aug. 25. S. 1938 Aug. 5.
22 pitt pgi a ti ago pogatiti	-	•	-	•	D

Noctuid	AE.			
Cosmia trapenzina .				OG. 1939 July 7. S. 1937 Aug. 5; 1938
communication of	•			Aug. 11.
Agrochola pistacina .				St. N. 1935 Oct. 1.
Cucullia asteris		•	•	
Scoliopteryx libatrix .	•	•	•	S. 1937 Oct. 29.
GEOMETRIDA	E.			
Comibeana pustulata .				O. 1932 July 10.
Sterrha aversata		•		OD. 1934 July 18.
Scopula imitaria				OD. 1934 July 17.
Operophtera brumata .		•		S. 1937 Nov. 24; 1938 Nov. 23; 1938 Dec. 12.
Lygris prunata		•	•	OG. 1939 July 13.
Lygris populata	•	•	•	OD. 1934 July 23.
Ephyia bilineata	•	•	•	OD. 1935 July 13.
Eupithecia centaureata .	•	•	•	S. 1937 Aug. 5; 1937 Aug. 7; 1938 Sept. 6.
Cabera exanthemata	•	•	•	O. 1932 July 10.
Deuteronomos alniaria .	•	•	•	OD. 1933 Aug. 15. Ce. 1935 Sept. 7. St. N. 1935 Sept. 26.
Selenia bilunaria	•	•		S. 1939 April 12.
Crocalis elinguaria .	•	•	•	H. 1934 Aug. 21. RS. 1934 July 22.
Ourapteryx sambucaria .	•	•	•	S. 1938 June 24; 1938 July 22. O. 1932 July 13.
Lycia hirtaria				
Cleora repandata				St. N. 1937 July 2.
Lithina chlorosata .				ED. 1933 May 29.
Chiasmia clathrata .	·			OD. 1933 July 18.
HEPIALIDAE				•
	•			Cn. 1935 July 10.
	•	•	•	On. 1000 bury 10.
Pyralidae.				
Loxostege verticalis .	•	•	•	OD. 1934 July 18; 1934 Aug. 4. S. 1938 Aug. 27.
Hydrocampa sp				OD, 1935 Aug. 12.
Pyralis glaucinalis .		•		OD. 1934 July 18; 1935 Aug. 17; 1935
				Aug. 19.
CRAMBIDAE. Crambus sellasellus .				OD. 1935 Aug. 19.
α 1	•	•	•	OD. 1935 July 19. ED. 1933 June 17. OG.
Cramous sp	•	•	•	1939 July 13. Cn. 1935 Aug. 3.
TORTRICIDAE.				·
Tortrix forsterana .				OD. 1935 July 19.
Tortrix viridana	•	•	•	S. 1938 June 18; 1938 June 19. O. 1932 July.
Tortrix sp				OG. 1939 July 19.
Cydia (Carpocapsa) pomone	ella	•		OD. 1935 Aug. 17.
Argyroploce salicella .				OD. 1934 July 18.
Argyroploce striana .				Cn. 1935 July 13.
TINEIDAE.				-
Borkhausenia pseudospretel	la.			OD. 1935 July 20.
Tinea sp		•	•	OD. 1934 July 18.
Phthorimea instabillella	•	•	•	Cn. 1935 July 5.
	•	•	•	

Table 12 shows the 35 species which have occurred on more than three occasions or in considerable numbers on one or two days. Of these 13, or more than 1 in 3, were known or suspected migrants. The species are arranged in order of frequency of occurrence and the lightships in order of distance from land. It will be seen that 6 out of the 8 most frequently occurring species were known to be migrants; and that only 4 out of the 35 species did not occur in the first three light vessels, which are 20 miles or more from land.

TABLE 12.

List of Lepidoptera which occurred at least four times at the lightships; or if less than four times, at least on one occasion in considerable numbers.

		Rec T	Total Records		Outer Dowsing	Outer Dowsing		East Dudgeon	gg.		Outer Gabbard	2.2	Ħ	Haisboro'	•	έΩ	Sunk		5	Owers		Royal Sovereign	ra l		Corton	ă		Cockle	<u>e</u>	Z	Saint Nicholas	73 88 88	
		et 1	L ,	M	B L	×	_	17	×	<u>m</u>	Ч	X	p#	ы	×	œ	L.	×	24	7		R	7	<u>m</u>	н	×	#	1	×	æ	ы	×	
• Plusia gamma . • Aglasi urticae . • Alogophora meticulosa • Pieris rapae . • Vanessa atalanta		28 26 22 22 17	9-0	000000			m 63 63		11111	C C1	≎1 →	11111		-1111	1-111	m-2m1	- 01	- 0101						0100-01-4	1111	-1111	61	11111	11111	62 44 ¹⁴	11111	11111	
*Pieris brassicae Apamea monoglypha Agrotis segetum Euprocis smilis Amathes c-nigrum		1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.	201-1-1	2-1	4.65.70 +	-1111	m n	m m	11111			11111	1-111	11111		c1 20 21	-	1111	-1111	-1111	11111		[[] [] []	- 4 - -	-1111	1-111			11111	61 m	-1111	-1111	,
Euprocts chrysorthoea Triphoena pronuba. Abraxas grossulariata Crambus tristeli.s. *Callimorpha jacobaese		1-1-010		! <u>'</u> !	6 63 G E	m	- -		11111	c1 cn	11111	11111	11111	11111				<u> </u>	- 0 -		11111			11111	11111	11111	11111	11111	11111	-	11111	11111	
Luperna testacea Nymphalis vo Franessa cardus. Arcta caya Perdroma porphyrea		******	1111-							1 27	11111	11111	01	11111	11111	.	1111-				11111	11-11	1 1 1	11111	11111	11111	11111		11111	m	11111	11111	
Rhizedra iutosa Opisthograpits luteolata Crambus hortuellus Agrotis ipsilon. *Leucanta rutellina	:	44466		<u> </u>	- 63	11111					63	11111	11111		11111	21	-11-1		1-111			11111	1111	60 60	11111	11111	11111	11111	11111	-1111	11111	11111	
Crambus culmellus Plutella macultpennus Omphaloscelus lunosa Xanthorrhoe monlanata Luthosta quadra		mm en en en			81		1 2		11111		1111-	11111	11111	11111	1111	11-11			1111	1111	11111		11111		-1111	11111	11111	11111	11111	11111	11111	11111	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~
Agrais clavis Curha guivago Slerria emarginata Xanthorrhoe fluctuata Hyponomeuta cognatellus							11111		! ! ! ! ! !	11111	11111	11111	11-11	11-11	11111	111		11111			11111	1111		11111	11111				11111	11111	11111	11111	

M = moderate numbers. * Denotes previously considered as, or suspected to be, a migrant. R = total records. L = large number.

TABLE 3

The commoner Lepidoptera at the lightships arranged according to month of occurrence and locality.

St. Nicholas	(I)	1	87, 27 (100-150)	1	-	(20-30)	ତ୍ର ।		ı	11	11			i	1	1	ı	i	11	ı	1	1		i	1	1,
St.	38, 29 (1)		87, 27			37, 5	88													naga karapta da dikkar						
Cockle	1	l	11	1	1	ı	11	1	1	11	11	1	35, 16 (1)	1	1	1			11	1	1	i	I	1	ı	1
Corton	1	1	11		1	86, 13 (M)		1	l s	88 (1)	11		1	ı	36, 10 (1) 35, 16 (1)	t	ı	I	35, 5 (1)	(i) o	84, 26 (12)	I	1	86, 13 (M)	35, 19 (2)	1
Royal Sovereign	1	1	33, 24 (2)		1	1	11	1	ı	11	11		39, 11 (12)	I	1	88, 27 (1)			_	1	34, 22 (2)	1	ı	ı	1	1
Owers	1	1	11	33, 29 (1)	33, 29 (2)	ı	11		1	11					(2) 67 (3)	1	1	1	11	1	1	1	(T) of (S)) 	1	I
Sunk	1	38, 18 (2)	28, 21 (19)		1		11	1	38, 16 (1)	il	11			1	1	38, 26 (12)	87, 19 (2)	ı	11	1		1	1	i	I	1
Haisboro'	1	38, 1 (2)	11	1	1	1	11	1	1	11	11			1	34, 20 (6)	1	36, 25 (2)	1	34, 16 (S)	1	l	1	!	1	1	1
Outer Gabbard	!	1	11	1	١	1	11		1	11	11				1	1	1	8. .1 .5 .7	86, 15 (E) 86, 13 (E)	39. 7 (1) 39. 15 (D)	89, 27 (D) 86, 5 (6)	i	1	1	1	1
East Dudgeon	1	1			1	1	19.	33 , 16 (2)	` 	33, 9 (M)	1	3	88, 3 (M)	3	(2) 1	33, 20 (2) 33, end (M)	١	1	11	1	ı	33, end (M)	88, end (M)	1	1	1
Outer Dowsing	1	1	11	88, 16 (1), 21 (1)	(S)		160	1	1	11					କ	3888	(r) 87 (r)	1	######################################	ı	35, 26 (1) 36, 18 (1)	36, 19 (1)	33, 24 (3)	83, 25 (1) 34, 18 (2)	34, 20 (4 +) 34, 18 (1)	85, 15 (8) 85, 15 (8)
Insect	P. gamma	P. meticulosa	P. brassicae		O. luteolata	.P. brassıcae	*P. meticulosa	X. montanata	*O. luteolata	C. nortuellus P. maculipennis	A. urticae	Tr. to	P. brassicae .	. P. rapae	E. chrysorrhoea	E. sımilıs			L. testacea A. monoglypha	L. rstellsna	• P. gamma	.X. montanata	A. grossulariata	C. culmellus	*C. hortuellus	C. tristellus
Month	March	April	May			June					July	_								***						

I	l	ı	11	1	11	111	11	11	11	I	11111
I	ı	36, 1 (1) 36, 24 (1)	11	ı	11	111	11	11	11	1	11111
8, 24 (1)	1	86, 22 (3) 86, 31 (3)	11		11	35, 30 (3)	11	11	84, 17 (5) 85, 31 (2)	l	11111
89, 27 (20)	ı	88, 22 (1) 89, 25 (8)	88, 6 (S) 89, 16 (I)	85, 30 (20+1) 89, 6 (S) 89, 16 (20)	88, 7 (1)	111	88, 27 (2)	11	88, 27 (1)	ı	88, 24 (1)
1	l	I	11	ı	H	111	11	11	11	ſ	1111
ı	1	1	11	87, 14 (20)	11	38, 27 (4)	(e) (1)	88, 7 (2) 88, 22 (3) 28 (8)	88 88 88 (S) (E) (S) (E) (S) (E) (S) (E) (E) (E) (E) (E) (E) (E) (E) (E) (E	88.88.8 8.88.88.89.89.89.89.89.89.89.89.89.89.89	88 (چ) ا
38, 1 (1 + 8) 34, 3 (1) 34, 15 (1) 36, 17 (12) 36, 26 (1)	l	33, 22 (2)		34, 1–4 (5) 36, 20 (1)	(S) - '%	88, 4 (3) 	11	11	11	88, 8 (D)	33, 6 (M), 13 (3)
8888 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	8, 13 8, 13		88, 12 (D)	39, 12 (D)	11	88, 21 (D)	11	39, 14 (1)	88, 7 (D)	88, 14 (b) 88, 14 (c) 14 (c) 15 (c) 16 (c) 17 (c)	
888 888 80 (3) 11 (1)	I	33, 21 (1)	88, 2 (M)	1	11	111	11	11	11	1	11111
888888 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	l	88, 22 (5) 89, 30 (1)	888.89 (18.19 (1	888.43 6(1) 18(1+) 18(1)	18.8	8, 24 (3)	10.00	() # 8	34, 16 (1)	88.18(1) 88.18(1) 88.28(1) 20.13(1) 20.13(1) 88.18(1) 88.18(1) 88.18(1)	88. 21.00 20.00
• A. urticae	04.17	V. atalanta	• P. brassicae	•P. rapae	*E. chrysorrhoea *E. similis	*A. caja L. quadra A. segetum	P. porphyrea A. c-nigrum	T. pronuba L. testacea	• A. monoglypha • P. meticulosa	•P. gamma	S. emarginata X. fuctuata • A. gressularata • O. tutcolata • C. trisellus
Aug.									***************************************		are all the second of the seco

The first figure (heavy type) is the year; the second the date of the month; the third (in brackets) the numbers stated to have been seen. S = several, D = dozens, M = many H = hundreds, T = thousands. • = previously mentioned in the same table.

Table 13 (Continued).

St. Nicholas	11	ı	38, 4 (2)	88, 19 (1) 88, 27 (3)	189	88 , 27 (3)	!	1		i	1	ł	1 1	1 (3)			l	İ	86, 12 (1)	88, 12 (1)	1	
Cockle	11	ı	li		11	11	ł	ı		l	ı	i		ı		ll						
Corton	24, 12 (3) 24, 6 (2)	(z) 0.7 %	1 1		24. 8 (1)	3 1 (6)		ı	,	l	ı		34. 5 (3)	36, 12 (2)			ı	34, 16 (S)	11		11	
Royal Sovereign	88 (1) (1)	(i)	(2) 26		11	11	34 , 15 (1)	33 (1)		I	١	1	1 1	88			I	1	100			1
Owers	88, 25 (1)	38			1	11	1	33, 26 (1)			I	1 1		1				l	11			l
Sunk	87, 3 (6)	l	(C) (S) (S) (S) (S) (S) (S) (S) (S) (S) (S	88,88 14(3) 23 (H)	88.83 E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E	88, 23 (H) 87, 5 (20–30)	88, 2 (3) 87, 5 (20–30)	87, 9 (12) 86, 14 (3)	12 8 8 8 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	8, 25 26 (2)	88 88 (1)	3 (H)	88	1	1	1	නි දිනි දිනි	(1) (2) (2)	27. 18 (4)	38, 25 (1)	1 1	
Haisboro,	36, 8-12 (1)	1 :	11		11	11	ł	34, 8 (1)		1	1		1	1	!	1	1	-		1		!
Outer Gabbard	11	1	1		11	11	i	ı		l	1	11	ı	1	!	1	1	l	1 1	1		1
East Dudgeon	11	1 1			11	11	ı	ı		l	1	1 1	ı	ı		8,4(1)	ı	l		l	1	ı
Outer Dowsing Bast Dudgeon	35, 5(1)	11	1		11	34 , 1 (1)	2. 4(1)	ı			1	1 1	1	1	1	1	1	1	36, 5 (1)	86, 27 (1)	3 (I)	35, 5 (1)
Insect	• A urticae • V. atalanta	• F. cardus • P. range	.A. segetum		A. ipsilon	*A. c-nigrum	T. pronuba	*P. meticulosa	R. Intrea		L. ritelling	C. gilrago	*P. gamma	*O. luteolata	* V. atalanta	*P. rapae	*A. segetum	.A. ipsilon	*P. meticulosa	P. gamma	O. lunosa	•R. lutosa
Month	Sept.														Şt.							

On the whole the species in this table must be considered as likely to be regular migrants, and this applies particularly to the noctuids P. meticulosa (see also p. 141) and A. monoglypha, both of which occurred on more than ten occasions.

One of the most unexpected species to be high up in the list is the geometrid moth Abraxas grossulariata, which occurred on seven occasions. On only one of these was any number present, but three records were over 20 miles from land. We are not aware that there had been any previous suggestion of migration in this insect.

It is interesting to note that of the six butterflies included in Table 12 all were previously known as migrants. The new suspected species are all moths about which our knowledge of possible movements is at a much lower level.

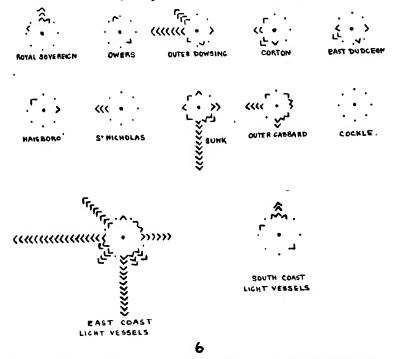


Fig. 6.—Compass direction of the flights observed at the different lightships.

North at the top of the page.

Table 13 shows the more common migrants listed according to their seasonal distribution, with the lightships at which they were reported. There are 9 occurrences of 4 species in May, and 10 of 8 species in June. In July activity increases rapidly with 61 records of 18 species, and reaches its maximum in August with 109 records of 23 species. In September activity falls off to 48 records of 17 species and again in October to 17 records of 9 species.

Finally Table 14 shows further details of the larger flights arranged under the species concerned, with the time of day, numbers present, wind direction and notes.

Altogether there are 88 records of occurrences of more than five insects at a time, on which either the direction of flight, or the direction of wind, or both, was given by the observer. These have been analysed in figs. 6, 7 and 8.

Fig. 6 shows the compass directions of the flights recorded at each of the

TABLE 14.

Particulars of the larger swarms arranged according to species, with direction of flight, wind and nearest land.

Remarks	With P. brassicae.	With E. similis, X. montanata and A. grossulariata.	No hurry. Numbers dwindled till none at 5 p.m. With F. writore Flying very fast. Thu but continuous. Cloudy and squally. Thin but undoubted migration, most about noon. Fair	weather Many on water.	Settled on lantern. With P. brassicae—a few of each. With P. brassicae. Clear and sunny. With one P. brassicae.	With V. atalanta etc., sea full of butterslies.	With S. aversata. L. verticalis, P. glaucinalis, C. pomonella, A. salvella, H. cognetella, Tinea sp.	With A. c-nigrum, P. gamma and O. ludeolata.	With L. cuellina.
Durection nearest land	22 m. S.W.	22 m. S.W.	22 m. S.W. 22 m. S.W. 22 m. S.W. 30 m. W. 1 m W. 1 m. W.	34 m. S.W. 30 m. W. 7 m. N. 7 m. N.W.	7 m. N.W. 10 m. N.W. 7 m. N.W. 20 m. W.N.W. 7 m. N.W.	22 m. S.W.	30 m. W.	20 m. W.N.W.	20 m. W.N.W.
Wind	Calm	S.W. or calm	S.E. or calm Calm W. or S.W. S.W. or W.	S.E.	N.N.E. N.W. N.W. S.E.	S.W. or calm	S.	ឆ្នាំ	S.E. W.S.W.
Flight	SS.E.	1	W. W. or S.W. S.S.B. B. W.	M.N.W. N.S.E.	S	-	W. and W.N.W.	જાં	W. N.E. E.N.E.
Number	Swarms	Many	30 per hour 6 at a time Swarms 20 100-150 20-30	Dozens Swarms Hundreds 12 Dozens	20 20 A f-w Dozens 20	Many	Many	Dozens	Dozens Several Dozens
Time	7.15 p.m.	1	Noon to dark 2-5 p.m. 7.15 p.m. 5-6 p.m. 9 a.m6 p.m. 10 a.m3 p.m.	11 a.m1 p.m. 4 p.m.	3 p.m. 1.m. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1	I	6-9 a.m.	l	9 p.m. 2 a.m. 7 p.m.
Light Vessel	East Dudgeon	East Dudgeon	East Dudgeon "Outer Dowsing St. Nicholas	Corton Outer Dowsing Owers Royal Sovereign Outer Gabbard	Royal Sovereign Sunk Royal Sovereign Outer Gabbard Royal Sovereign	East Dudgeon	ea Outer Dowsing	Outer Gabbard	Outer Gabbard "
Date	Aglais urticae 1933, Aug. 2	Vanessa atalanta 1933, July end	Pieris brassicae 1931, June mid 1932, July 3 1933, Aug. 2 1934, May 27 1934, June 5	1935, June 13 1936, Aug. 20 1937, July 28 1939, July 11 1939, Aug. 12	Pieris rapae 1933, Aug. 20 1937, Aug. 14 1939, Aug. 6 1939, Aug. 12 1939, Aug. 12	Euproctis similis 1933, July end	Euproctus chrysorrhoea 1934, July 18	Lathosia quadra 1939, Aug. 21	Apamea monoglypha 1939, July 15 1939, July 23 1939, Aug. 7

Remarks	With A. c-nigrum. With P. gamma. With L. testaces and A. segetum. With A. segetum (q.v.) and other Noctuman.	With A. monoplypha.		With L. quadra, P gamma and O. luteolata.	With A. secalts. With P. brasstac, X. fuctuata and C. tristellus. Largest light ever seen by observer. Hundreds on water and dravens on board.	With L quadra (q.v.) etc.	On ship and on sea.	With V. atalanta and E. similie.	With P. brassicae, P. gamma and C. tristellus.	With A. e-nigrum, L. quadra and P. gamma.		Also several on 15th, 18 fixing low. Also several on 11th, fiving west 12-4 a.m. Migration in large numbers for 2-3 days. On water. With P. brassicae, X. fluctuata and P. genma.	All over the ship.
Direction nearest land	10 m. N.W.	20 m. W.N.W.	10 m. N.W.	20 m W.N.W.	9 m S.W.	20 m W.N.W.	9 m. S W.	22 m. S.W.	30 m. W.	20 m. W.N W	3 m. S.W.	30 m. W.	22 m. S.W.
Wind	N W. N.W. E. N.N.W.	S.E.	metrordosa N.W.	ĸ	N.N.W.	Е	SE.	Calm	1	ži,	E.	Calm N.R.	1
Flight	N W. W. S. B. W. S. B.	, W.	. glago and P. mencidosa SE.	v.	ж.w. W.	si.	١	On sea	On sea	ฑ่	ı	N.W. N.W.	ı
Number	20-30 12 Dozens Several Hundreds	Dozens	osa, O. lunosa, C. Hundreds	Dozens	Dozens Thousands Swarms	Dozens	Thousands	Swarms	Swarms	Dozens	Many	Many Many Many Swarms	Swarms
Time	5 s.m. 5 s.m. 4-8 s.m 4-8 s.m. 2-7 s.m.	9 p.m.	P. porphyrea, R. lutosa, O. lunosa, C.	ł	8 a m7 p.m 4 a m. All ngl.t	8 a.m10 p.m.	1	rata —	1	ı	1	2-12 p.m.	Noon
Light Vessel	Sunk	Outer Gabbard	A. tpstlon,	Outer Gabbard	Haisborough Outer Dowsing	Outer Gabbard	Haisborough	ta and A. grossulariata E Dudgeon	Outer Dowsing	ita Outer Gabbard	Corton	Outer Dowsing " "	East Dudgeon
Date	Phlogophora metrcul osa 1937, Sept. 5 1837, Sept. 9 1938, Aug. 8–9 1938, Aug. 29 1938, Sept. 23	Leucania rutellina 1939, July 15 1939, July 27	Agrotis segetum, A. daris, 1938, Sept. 23	Amathes c-nigrum 1939, Aug. 21	Plusta gamma 1936, Aug. 8 1936, Aug. 20 1936, Aug. 21	1939, Aug. 21	Sterrha emarginata 1933, Aug. 6	Xanthorrhoe montanata sud 1933, July end E Dud	Xanthorrhoe fluctuata 1935, Aug. 20	Opisthograptis luteolata 1939, Aug. 21	Crambus culmellus 1935, July 13	Crambus tristellus 1935, July 22-24 1935, Aug. 6 1935, Aug. 22-24 1936, Aug. 20	Plutella maculipennis 1933, June 9

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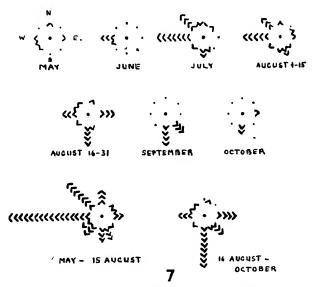


Fig. 7.—Directions of flights observed at the different lightships according to the month of occurrence.

Fig. 7 shows the same records analysed according to month. They range from May to October, with a maximum of 31 flights in August. It was decided to divide August into two periods as there appeared to be a change in direction of flights during this month. The summaries from May to mid-August

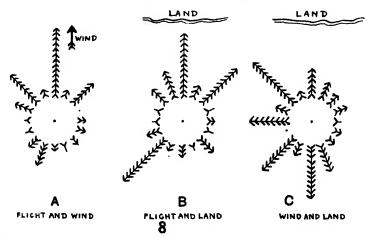


Fig. 8.—Direction of flights observed at lightships in relation to wind and land:—A. Angle between flight and wind; B. Angle between flight and nearest land; C. Angle between wind and land at time of flight.

and from mid-August to October show a quite definite change of direction from predominantly west and north-west in the first period to towards the south, south-east and east in the second.

Fig. 8 shows an analysis of the same flights in relation to the direction of the wind, and the nearest land. Fig. 8, A, indicates that there have been distinctly more records of flights with the wind than against it. Fig. 8, B, seems to suggest a slight preference for the insects to fly towards the land, but the preponderance is not definite. Fig. 8, c, indicates that the flights are not more frequently recorded with a wind on or off shore. The apparent asymmetry of this figure is probably due to the presence of prevailing winds in one direction along the shore.

Previous records at British light vessels.

W. Eagle Clark, a great student of the migration of birds, made some observations on the presence of insects at light vessels.

In 1901 on Eddystone Lighthouse, situated 10 miles south-south-west of Rame Head near Plymouth, he recorded as follows (1904, Ent. mon. Mag. 40: 9-10):—

"23rd September, Agrotis segetum (1).

"1st October; 10 p.m. to 2 a.m. (on 2nd); Many hundreds of moths, of which captured specimens included A. ypsilon, A. segetum and H. meticulosa. Wind west light to calm.

"12th October; Moths present in great numbers including H. meticulosa, A. ypsilon, A. segetum and P. gamma.

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He adds: "H. meticulosa appears to be the greatest traveller, it was not only the most abundant species observed but also the most frequent visitor."

Again in 1903 on the Kentish-Knock light vessel, which is in the mouth of the Thames 21 miles north-east of Margate, Kent. and 21 miles south-west of the Naze, Essex (see fig. 5), he records (1903, Ent. mon. Mag. 39: 289) numbers of V. cardui and P. gamma from 8.45 p.m. to midnight on the night of 22nd September. On the 28th September specimens of E. alniaria and A. testacea were also captured.

It will be seen that all his species are on our list and that there is still greater

evidence for considering P. meticulosa as a migrant.

Records of insects at the lightships and lighthouses in Scotland.

In 1914, 1915 and 1916 W. Evans published a full account of insects captured at certain Scottish lighthouses over a period of about six years. Thirteen lighthouses sent in material and of these seven were in or near the Firth of Forth; the others were on the south-west coast, in the Hebrides, and in the Orkneys and Shetlands. Over 6000 specimens were examined and identified to 164 species of Lepidoptera.

Unfortunately this wealth of material does not throw much light on the subject of migration as nearly all the lights were either on the mainland or, if not, on the islands quite close to the coast or large enough to have their own

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For example 101 species are recorded from the Isle of May in the Firth of Forth, about five miles from the Fifeshire coast and nine miles from the East Lothian coast. But the island itself is nearly one mile long and has quite a considerable vegetation.

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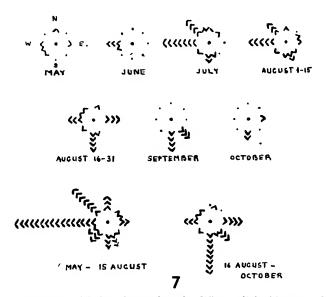


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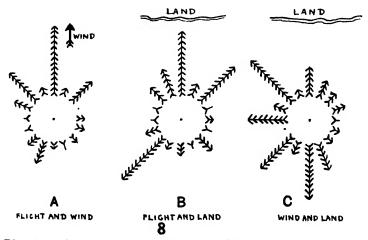


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For example 101 species are recorded from the Isle of May in the Firth of Forth, about five miles from the Fifeshire coast and nine miles from the East Lothian coast. But the island itself is nearly one mile long and has quite a considerable vegetation.

The only light to which captures must have flown some considerable distance is the Bell Rock, which is off the Firth of Tay about 11 miles south-east of the coast of Forfarshire. At this light only 4 species were recorded: X. monoglypha. 1 male on 12th July 1915. C. quadripunctata. 1 male on 10th July 1915. P. gamma. 1 male on 8th July 1914. P. maculipennis. A "rush of small moths" believed to be this species in August 1914, but no specimens were kept for identification.

Of these, only C. quadripunctata is not on our list of captures.

V. Observations on migrant butterflies in Florida, U.S.A., made by Mr. and Mrs. K. Hodges during 1937, 1938 and 1939.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

In May 1937 a letter was received from Mr. and Mrs. Karl Hodges of Indiatlantic-by-the-Sea, Melbourne, Florida, with a full account of a migration of Ascia monustc and an offer of help for further observations, which was gratefully accepted.

Specimens of many species were sent to Rothamsted for identification, and named ones were returned to the observers so that they rapidly got to know

the more conspicuous species.

During the remainder of 1937 Mr. and Mrs. Hodges sent in other general observations on movements, and at the beginning of March 1938 they started an almost daily watch which was continued until November 1939. Each day a smaller or larger number of butterflies was caught and placed in an envelope, on the outside of which were written notes on the temperature, wind, weather, the species observed and the direction of their flight. These have been sorted out and tabulated, and form a unique series of observations giving information on several new migrants as well as on butterflies whose migration was already established.

Altogether nearly 2200 specimens have been sent in, so that there has been a very frequent check on all the identifications. Fortunately the principal migrants of this area are easy to distinguish from related species, but some difficulty has been experienced in separating the "Skippers" (HESPERIDAE) and the observations on these are not given in full here.

The locality where almost all the observations have been made is Indiatlantic-by-the-Sea, which is on the Atlantic coast of Florida, on the long narrow island which is separated from the mainland by the so-called "Indian River," really a lagoon. The nearest town is Melbourne, a few miles due west, which is itself about 60 miles S.E. of Orlando. The island is at this point about 2 miles wide and the Indian River about the same width. Most of the observations were made within a quarter of a mile of the shore but a few were made on the banks of the Indian River or from the bridge which crosses it.

Owing to the immediate vicinity of the Atlantic Ocean to the east almost all records of flight are either to the north or to the south. No butterflies could be flying from east to west as they would have to come out of the ocean, and the butterflies observed showed no tendency to fly out to sea to the east.

I would like to take this opportunity of thanking Mr. and Mrs. Hodges for the great enthusiasm and intelligence they have shown in making the observations.

In fig. 9 are shown diagrammatically the days on which observations were taken and the direction of the wind whenever mentioned. Between the 7th

March 1938 and the 31st October 1939, observations on insects were made on 576 days. On 45 of them the wind was not noted, on 100 of the remainder it was stated to be "calm," or "no wind." During the 431 windy days the wind was from the S.E. on 173 days or about 40%; the next most frequent directions being N.E. and E. These three directions, all from the easterly quarter, account for 75% of all the days with wind. On the other hand, on only 57 days (13%) were the winds from the W., N.W. and S.W.

An examination of the records for each month shows that the prevalence of S.E. winds is most marked from February to September inclusive. From

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Fig. 9.—Direction of wind during the period of observations of migrant butterflies made by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida.

October to January the most prevalent wind is from the N.E., with E. and S.E. next in occurrence.

Ascia monuste L. (The Great Southern White).

In a recent paper (Williams 1938b) the information available on the migrations of this butterfly in the U.S.A. was summarised. There was a number of records almost all along the Atlantic coast of Florida and nearly all in the months of April to June. About 24 records from localities south of New Smyrna (lat. 29·3° N.) were all in a southerly direction, while about a dozen records north of New Smyrna were more frequently to the north than to the south but included both directions. The information appeared to support a theory that there was some point of origin of the swarms about the latitude

of New Smyrna from which migrations went both to the north and to the south.

Mr. and Mrs. Hodges' records during 1937 were included in this summary. In this year they observed a movement towards the south at Indiatlantic Beach from the end of May to the end of July; but they noted that on the 5th and 6th of July only the flight changed direction and went towards the north. Not one butterfly was seen from the end of July until the early spring of 1938.

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Fig. 10.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of Ascia monuste.

In 1938 the first one caught was on the 7th March and the observations from then on are tabulated in fig. 10. The results in the first half of 1938 are very striking and unexpected. A. monuste flew southward in very large numbers almost every fine day from the end of March to the 16th May. Then, after no butterflies seen on the 17th, the flight resumed on the 18th in the exactly opposite direction, towards the north, and continued in this direction quite markedly during the whole of June, with occasional individuals during July and the first half of August, all to the north.

From the 21st August no butterflies were seen until a single one on the 27th October and a few scattered individuals, mostly apparently moving to the south, in November and December.

The species did not become abundant again until the beginning of March 1939, when the southward flight set in and continued without a break until

the 9th June, with specially heavy flights about the 18th April, the 10th and 25th May and the 3rd-5th June. On the 10th and 11th June individuals were seen going both to the north and to the south. On the 12th June a very definite flight set in towards the north, which lasted throughout June in considerable numbers and was noticed in small numbers on several days in July and occasionally throughout August. None was noticed in September and only one or two individuals in October flying in various directions.

Table 15.

Numbers of white, intermediate, and grey individuals of A. monuste captured at different times of the year in Florida. The row of crosses xxx indicates the time of reversal of flight direction.

			1937			1938			1939		All	3 yea	ırs	%
		Wh.	In.	Gr.	Wh.	In.	Gr.	Wh.	In.	Gr.	Wh.	In.	Gr.	grey.
March	1–10				1	0	0	10	0	0	11	0	0	0
	11-20				11	0	0	2	0	0	13	0	0	0
	21-31				11	1	0	31	3	0	42	4	0	0
April	1-10				30	10	0	6	0	0	36	10	0	0
	11-20				26	24	3	l	2	0	27	26	3	5
	21-30	1			5	4	3	120	1	15	125	5	18	12
May	1-10				8	1	4	4	0	3	12	1	7	36
_	11-20				1	0	7	.58	0	44	59	0	51	45
	21-31	11	0	16	1	x x :	4 4	17	0	26	29	0	46	60
June	1-10	20	2	13	14	0	8	37	0	27	71	2	48	40
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	11-20	1			30	1	16	48	0	3	78	1	19	19
	21-30				6	0	2				6	0	2	(25)
July	1-10				1	0	0	_			1	0	0	
	11-20	l			1	0	0				1	0	0	 —
	21-31			ĺ	_			_			-			-
Total f	or year all	31	2	29	146	41	47	334	6	118	511	49	194	
	varieties		62			234			458			754		

Thus in 1937 there was evidence of a change of direction from the southerly to the northerly flight for two days at the beginning of July; in 1938 the direction changed definitely and permanently after the 18th May; and in 1939 the same change happened on and after the 9th and 10th June.

The species A. monuste is always white in the male sex, but the female can be either white or grey (form phileta Fabr.) or more rarely intermediate in colour.

In the course of the three years Mr. and Mrs. Forbes sent over seven hundred and fifty specimens for examination and the proportion of the whites, intermediates and greys is shown in Table 15. Unfortunately it is very difficult and sometimes impossible to distinguish between the white males and the white females in the dried and somewhat rubbed material available for study.

It will be seen that neither grey nor intermediate forms are present at the beginning of March, all specimens sent being white. In the last week in March a few intermediates begin to appear and by the second week in April full grey females are found in small numbers. The percentage of these to the total population rises rapidly to a maximum of about 60% in the last week in May and then falls again during June. The exact extent of the fall is uncertain as only a few specimens were captured after the second week in June.

In 1938 the specimens captured in the second half of May, just after the change of direction from south to north, were 2 whites and 11 greys—a considerably higher proportion of greys than had been present in the weeks before the change

of direction.

In 1939, on the contrary, the specimens caught in the second ten days of June just after the change of direction were 48 whites and only 3 greys, a very sudden drop in the proportion of greys. The evidence is contradictory but does not seem to support the idea that the same individuals that have gone south turn round and come north again.

After the end of July very few specimens were captured. They included one grey in August 1939 and one white in October and November 1938 and in

January and October 1939.

There is a small amount of evidence that the whites and the greys keep apart in the flights; thus Mr. and Mrs. Hodges write on 3rd May 1939: "The grey females have been fewer this year and it was not until the 28th April that they appeared in any numbers. We netted many in the morning flying south with the whites but in their own column. They were flying in about equal numbers with the whites." Again they say, speaking of the same date: "Whites and greys flying about 60 per minute. Nearly all the greys in this envelope were netted in single column without whites."

Mr. and Mrs. Hodges made also many general observations on the flights, of which the following might be quoted to give some idea of the migration at

its height:-

"On Wednesday, 26th April 1939, the whites were flying south all day in single column from the Indian River to within about 100 yards of the Atlantic Ocean beach, which we call the 'Beach Lane'. Here the butterflies spread out in a blanket of white several yards wide, flying fast. Over a hundred per minute passed just like a cloud in the morning, while in the afternoon they increased to at least 300 per minute for a width of over 300 feet. Close to the rim of the ocean was another column with Ocean Drive separating it from the last described.

"At intervals within the space of a mile all those on the east side of the drive had crossed until only a single column was left to pass through Melbourne Beach Town, all others joining and flying on towards Sebastian Inlet some twenty miles south.

"In this flight only a few greys could be seen. All were flying from 2-5 feet from the ground at a speed of about 25 miles per hour. They would fly into the net as you held it in front of them and were so close that five or six or

more were netted at one sweep."

The observations just summarised do not support the suggestion made in the first paragraph (p. 143) that the flights originated in the New Smyrna district and from there spread both north and south. Although these new observations relate to only one locality, they extend very considerably to the south the area where northerly flights occur, and show that a definite change of direction can occur in a single locality.

Danaus plexippus.

In 1937 two specimens were captured on 31st May, but at the end of September Mr. and Mrs. Hodges reported that altogether they had seen only these two. Individuals were again seen, flying to the south, on 13th and 30th October and on 5th and 9th November 1937. On the latter day they reported Monarchs flying to the south 3-20 feet above the ground.

No others were noted till the 5th April 1938 and the observations from this date are summarised in fig. 11. From the 20th April to the 12th May a few were seen going north but from that date till 4th October not a single one was observed. On this date, however, they reappeared in numbers and there was

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Fig. 11.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of $D.\ plexippus.$

some evidence of a southward drift during October. They remained in the neighbourhood in moderate numbers throughout the winter and were again seen going north in small numbers during March and April 1939, and the last individual was seen on the 8th May also going north. They reappeared in the autumn on the 17th October and were seen in small numbers during the rest of October, most moving to the south.

The dates of first appearances in the autumn were thus 13th October in 1937, 5th October in 1938, and 17th October in 1939; and the last appearances in the spring were 31st May in 1937, 12th May in 1938 and 8th May in 1939.

Pairing was noticed at the end of October and the beginning of November 938.

The evidence is entirely consistent with the theory of an autumn migration into Florida from the north and a return flight to the north in the spring.

About 42 specimens were captured which were all of the typical North American type with the spots just beyond the cell in the fore-wing pale buff, and distinct red-brown markings in the dark apex of the wing (see p. 156). There is no evidence from this material of the presence in Florida of the Central American type which is believed to be non-migratory. There seems also to be little evidence of a resident population remaining in the Melbourne District of Florida during the summer.

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Fig. 12.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of D. berenice.

Danaus berenice.

Previous to the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges the only indication that D. berenice could migrate was in an old record by Maynard (1886, The Butterflies of New England, Boston: 8), who wrote: "I saw hundreds of D. berenice flying to the east over the Atlantic 50 miles from land." No date or locality was given.

Mr. and Mrs. Hodges' records in 1937 showed that the species was present in large numbers about the 14th July flying over flowers and easy to net. Most had gone by 2nd August but it appeared in smaller numbers at least up to 16th September.

Regular observations were started in 1938 and the results are shown in fig. 12. It will be seen that in 1938 there is a very definite movement to the

north throughout April, May, June and July. During August, flights in both directions were noted, and from the beginning of September an equally definite southerly movement set in which was noticeable until early November. Pairing was noticed at the end of October. Only an occasional individual was noticed from the 5th November till the middle of March 1939. Then they became more common during March and April but with little indication of a northerly movement up to the beginning of May. During May, however, small numbers were recorded as flying to the north, particularly on the 10th. During June and July small numbers were seen sometimes flying to the north and at

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Fig. 13.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of Dione vanillae.

other times to the south. Only three individuals were seen between the 22nd July and the 19th October but on the 20th October there was a steady movement to the south which continued with some breaks to the end of the month.

Nearly 100 specimens were sent in at intervals to check the identification and all were *D. berenice*.

The observations lend quite definite support to the idea of a northerly movement in the spring and a southerly movement in the autumn in Florida.

Dione vanillae.

The first specimen captured by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges was on 28th August 1937, and they report that from that day to the 23rd September many appeared each day flying to the south.

Four specimens were captured on the 8th September and single ones on the 14th and 15th October and the 3rd November—all these were moving to the south.

There is no other record until the 18th March, when a single one was seen going to the north, followed on the next day by a record of "many going to the North." The records from this date are shown in fig. 13.

It will be seen that there was in 1938 a regular movement to the north during March, April and May; single specimens only were seen in June and July, becoming a little commoner again in August; and finally a very definite

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Fig. 14.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of *Phoebis eubule*.

southerly movement in September and October, becoming much less distinct in November.

No butterflies were then seen from the 23rd November 1938 till the 12th February 1939, when one was going to the north. During March and April 1939 there was again a definite movement to the north, but this did not appear to be as large as in 1938. Only two individuals were noted between the beginning of May and the 27th August (one in May and one in June); two were seen in the last week in August, a few in mid-September, a number flying south at the beginning of October and then about the middle of October a large southerly flight developed, which, on the 24th October, reached an intensity of 120 butterflies per minute within sight.

Previous to these observations, D. vanillae had been recorded taking part

in directional flights in the Galapagos Islands and in the Argentine, but there was only a single record for N. America when Johnson (1899, Ent. News 10:21) referred to a flight in Florida in September towards the south, but gave no year or further details.

There appears to be no doubt that this species has in Florida a regular movement towards the north in spring and a very definite movement in large numbers towards the south in autumn.

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Fig. 15.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of Terus lisa.

Phoebis eubile.

This is a well-known migrant and records of directional flights are known in the United States, in Tropical America and as far south as the Argentine. Previous information (Williams 1938b) indicated that in the U.S.A. there is a very definite southerly or south-easterly movement in the autumn and a much smaller one towards the north or north-west in the spring (see p. 188). In the Argentine northerly movements have been recorded in the autumn but there is so far no record of a spring movement away from the Equator (Williams 1930b).

With this information in hand, the observations made by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges are very puzzling, as they observed almost continuous flights towards the south throughout most of the year.

In 1937, they reported *eubulc* going south along with a big flight of *P. monuste* at the end of May. In mid-August they wrote: "Nearly every day

we note large yellows flying about with general direction south." On 23rd September: "Still the movement to the south continues," and later that during December 1937 and January and February 1938 the movement south continued whenever there was not a cold wind or heavy cloud. The observations from March 1938 are tabulated in fig. 14 and show movement to the south in all months except perhaps October to January.

Pairing was noted once during July, once in June, during August, on several

occasions during September 1938, and once during September 1939.

The butterfly was present in fair numbers during every month of the year. Up to April 1933 they had sent 313 specimens, of which 140 were males and

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Fig. 16.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of Papilio cresphontes.

173 females. Both sexes were present in every month when more than one individual was caught and in general they were in more or less even proportion. The following larger departures from equality are noted but they do not appear to be of any significance:—August 1938, 7 males to 28 females; October 1938, 22 males to 11 females and March 1939, 4 males to 19 females.

Terias lisa.

Previous to the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges, the only evidence of migration in this species was the fact that on several occasions large numbers had appeared suddenly in the Bermuda Islands.

In 1937 Mr. and Mrs. Hodges reported that on the 24th May T. lisa was joining in a southward movement of A. monuste. Three specimens were sent. From that time till 20th September they were generally common and showed a definite tendency to move to the south. In December 1937, January and February 1938, it was again "moving southwards whenever the weather was not wet or cloudy."

The more regular observations after March 1938 are shown in fig. 15 and indicate a continuous movement towards the south which is at its maximum in April, May and June but occurs in all months except November, December

and January.

The observations on *Terias lisa* thus closely resemble those on *Catopsilia eubule*, which also appears to move only to the south in this locality. No explanation can yet be put forward and more observations are required especially in Florida away from the coast line.

The identification was checked from nearly 300 specimens sent at intervals

during the two years.

Papilio cresphontes.

I have been able to trace only one record of directional movement in the "Giant Swallow tail," previous to the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges. Saverner (1908) recorded it flying south on Lake Erie, Canada, in August and September 1907 with *Papilio troilus* and *Danuus plexippus*.

Mr. and Mrs. Hodges noted it moving in small numbers on many occasions which are tabulated in fig. 16. The records indicate a definite movement to

the north in the spring of both 1938 and 1939.

Only very rarely, however, was the butterfly seen in the autumn and there is at present no evidence in support of a return flight at this time of the year.

About 20 specimens were captured at intervals and sent in for confirmation

of the identifications.

Eudamus proteus.

According to Scudder (1889: 1333) this Hesperid butterfly, known as the "Long-tailed Skipper," is a typical southern species which occasionally appears in some numbers in the south-western corner of New England.

Mr. and Mrs. Hodges first recorded it in September 1937 as migrating south from the 12th to 20th of that month, 2 to 3 feet above the ground, during

clear warm weather with winds chiefly from the S.E.

No other observation was made till September of 1938, from which date the records are tabulated in fig. 17. It will be seen that there was again a definite movement to the south between the 16th September and the 5th November. Pairing was observed on the 21st, 22nd and 23rd October.

The insect remained in this neighbourhood throughout the winter without any direction movement, but in February and March movement was again noted; not in any fixed direction, sometimes to the north and sometimes to the south

There were a few records of southward flight in July and August of 1939 but no extensive movement till the end of October when the southward flight set in in large numbers.

Thus a definite southward flight has occurred in the autumn of all the three

years during which observations have been made.

Vanessa virginiensis Drury (= huntera F.).

The first specimen of this species, known as "Hunter's Painted Lady," sent by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges was captured on 2nd April, 1938.

No other observation was made until 30th September, when another specimen was sent with the remark: "Many are going south."
On 27th February 1939 one was "netted on flowers about noon."

The next observations were made from 23rd to 25th March 1939.

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Fig. 17.—Observations by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida on the movements of Eudamus proteus.

Mrs. Hodges write that on the 23rd March "we discovered two other movements to the north, one a brown butterfly. . . . On the next day we saw many and netted one by the Indian River."

Additional notes were that on the 23rd March the butterflies were flying "above the whites (A. monuste) about 15 feet from the ground and very fast— 30 m.p.h. to the north."

On the 24th they were "going all day in single column 20 m.p.h." On the 25th "Several seen going north fast in single column."

Finally on 31st March another was captured on the east bank of the Indian River and sent with the note " About one every minute going north with Whites (A monuste), occasional Queens (D. berenice), and Gulf Fritillaries (D. vanillae)."

To sum up, no specimens were seen except in the spring and autumn and there is distinct evidence of a northward flight in the spring and a southward flight in the autumn.

It is remarkable that not a single specimen of Vanessa cardui was sent by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges, but on the other hand neither in 1937 nor in 1938 was the

Painted Lady present in large numbers in the U.S.A. generally.

The problem as to whether this latter species enters the U.S.A. through the West Indies and Florida is of considerable interest (see Williams 1938b). At present the only evidence of migration of *V. cardui* in Florida is that early in May 1916 near Key West, Mr. Honoré, a visitor from Europe, found himself surrounded by butterflies which he identified as *V. cardui* because they were similar to the European species with which he was familiar. No specimens were captured and, in view of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges' observations on the occurrence and movements of *Vanessa virginiensis*, it must be recognised that Mr. Honoré may have mistaken this latter for *V. cardui*. Further observations on the occurrence of both species in Florida are greatly needed.

I have been able to find only one other record of migration of *V. virginiensis* in U.S.A. and that is by Shannon (*Amer. Mus. J.* 17:33-40), who states that at Long Beach, Long Island, N.Y., in August and September 1919 numbers were flying steadily to the west in company with many *D. plexippus* and various

dragonflies.

It is interesting to note that the butterfly has been recorded on five occasions in the British Isles: once in Ireland, once in South Wales, twice on the south coast of England, and one specimen in the Dale collection without exact locality but stated to be British.

Vanessa atalanta.

On 30th March 1939 Mr. and Mrs. Hodges report "we noticed a butterfly flying fast to north; also on 31st March we watched them but they were too high up to net, until two flew lower than the others. One settled on the blossom of an Oleander bush and was captured. Estimated numbers flying one every half hour to the north for two days."

The specimen was the Red Admiral, Vanessa atalanta, and this was the only occasion on which this species was sent to me. It is a well-known migrant in Europe but there is only one previous record (Davis 1912) of a directional

movement in North America.

VI. SUMMARISED OBSERVATIONS ON SPECIAL SPECIES.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

(1) Danaus plexippus.

Variation and geographical distribution.

The Monarch butterfly extends, in one or other of its forms, from Alaska and Hudson Bay in North America to Patagonia in the south. There are, however, colour and pattern differences which enable individuals coming from certain areas to be distinguished from those coming from elsewhere.

The main differences are found in the fore-wing; first in the presence or absence of the dark bar along the hind margin of the wing; secondly in the colour of the four or five larger spots near the tip of the wing, which vary in colour from white to buff; and thirdly in the extent of the development of redbrown areas in the dark scaling near the tip of the wing. These are in addition to slight sexual differences (Plate 1).

Owing to the work of A. H. Clark (1931 and 1932) at Washington, Forbes (1939) at Cornell and Talbot at the British Museum, one can now recognise three moderately distinct forms with fairly definite geographical distributions and one series of intermediate forms found chiefly in the area where two of these forms overlap.¹

The race in South America south of the Amazon is perhaps the most definite and has been considered as a distinct species by many writers. It is characterised by the absence of the dark bar along the hind margin of the front wing (Plate 1,

C). This bar is present in all the other forms.

At the other end of the range in North America there is a race in which the spots in the fore-wing are very distinctly buff in colour and the red-brown areas beyond the spots are distinct and well developed (Plate 1, A).

In the northern portion of South America there is a Tropical American form in which the bar at the hind margin of the fore-wings is present, the spots across the apex of the fore-wing are white, and the red-brown areas near the tip

are absent, this area being uniformly almost black-brown (Plate 1, B).

I have not yet seen any specimens intermediate between the forms in the south and the north of South America but in the West Indies, in Panama and occasionally on the north coast of South America individuals occur which are definitely intermediate between the North American and the Tropical American races. These may have the spots white but with distinct traces of the red-brown areas; or may have the spots or some of them buff in colour but with the red-brown areas absent.

It is not the purpose of the present paper to enter into controversies of nomenclature but for reference that adopted by each of the authorities already mentioned is given below. For purposes of description I will use the nomenclature of Clark.

Race	Clark	Forbes	Talbot
1. N. American .	plexippus	menippe	plexippus
2. Intermediate .	-		megalippe
3. Tropical American	nigrippus	megalippe	nigrippus
4. South American .	erippus	erippus	erippus
Whole range .	Danaus plexippus	Danaus crippus	Danaus plexippus

I have examined over 1000 specimens of this butterfly in my own possession and in the collections at the British Museum, Tring, Oxford and Munich and the distributions of the different races as shown by these specimens are shown in the map (fig. 18 A-D).

It will be seen that erippus ranges from Brazil south of the Amazon southwards to North Patagonia, and westward to the Andes in Bolivia and in the Argentine. I have so far seen only two specimens which might have come from the southern part of the Pacific coast area west of the Andes. These were both labelled "Chile". One is in the collection of the British Museum and is typical erippus; the other is in the Tring collection and is typical North American plexippus. In neither case is the exact locality given or the collector's name, and both specimens are subject to considerable doubt. The insect is said to be not uncommon in Chile by Figueroa (1929) but his figure is copied from a North American journal and does not necessarily represent the form found in Chile.

As this paper was in the press an important paper on the variation and geographical distribution of *D. plexippus* by Dr. A. H. Clark has appeared in 1941, *Proc. U.S. nat. Mus.* 90. It should be consulted by all who are interested in this problem.

Since the above was written I have received from the Department of Agriculture of Chile, one specimen captured by Mr. F. Ruiz at Las Mercedes, Talca, Chile, in 1925. It is a typical South American *erippus*. Talca is south of Santiago in latitude 35°.20′ S.

It is interesting to note that many of the *erippus* caught in the Para district of Brazil, near the northern limit of its range, have the spots in the outer portion of the fore-wing white instead of buff, but in none that I have seen do the redbrown areas outside these tend to disappear. Thus both the southern and the northern forms seem to undergo somewhat similar variation as they approach

the Equator.

The Tropical American form, so-called nigrippus, is found, according to our map, in Brazil north of the Amazon, in the Guianas, Venezuela and Colombia, and in the west it ranges through Ecuador to Peru, much farther south than the northern limit of erippus in the east. It is also found occasionally in some of the West Indian Islands and according to Clark one has been captured in Florida (18th Dec. 1936), one in N. Carolina (4th July 1938), four in Louisiana (Nov. 1937) and two in West Virginia (15th June and 4th July 1938) (A. H. and L. F. Clark 1938b). These specimens I have not seen and it is possible that they might be classified as intermediates rather than the true nigrippus.

There is one typical nigrippus in the British Museum from the Galapagos. The intermediate form, which is so variable that I doubt the justification of the use of the varietal name negalippe, is found occasionally in the north of South America and more frequently in the southern portion of Central America and some of the West Indian Islands and occasionally as far north as Mexico.

The northern form plexippus is almost completely dominant in the whole of North America, Mexico, Central America to about the level of Nicaragua, and the Bahamas Islands. It is also found in Cuba, Jamaiea, Haiti and some of the Virgin Islands along with intermediates. One specimen which appears to be almost typical plexippus is in the Tring collection labelled Bogota, Colombia.

It is this North American form which appears to have spread over most of the world and all the specimens I have seen from the Pacific Islands, from Australia and New Zealand, from the Azores and Canary Islands in the East, and all

but one of the British-caught specimens (see p. 183), are of this type.

It should be noted that in the area populated by the intermediate and nigrippus type the females seem to vary more rapidly towards nigrippus than the males, and in Nicaragua and Costa Rica the females are intermediate while the males are still of the northern type. A variation also occurs in which the wings are very heavily veined and these are nearly all females. In Colombia

this appears to be the typical form of the female of nigrippus.

To sum up: there are three forms, a South American, a Tropical American and a North American, with intermediates between the two last. The South American form is known to undertake large migrations and so is the North American, but there is at present no definite evidence of migrations of the tropical form or of the intermediates. The limits of the distribution of these should therefore help to fix the limits of the movements of the two other forms towards the Equator. Thus it would appear that the normal southern limit of the movements of plexippus must be somewhere in Mexico, Cuba and the Bahamas; while the northern limit of crippus is, in the East at least, the Amazon.

So far I have been unable to examine specimens from the large forest area of Central Brazil, and Mr. W. J. Kaye, who has had considerable experience in Tropical America, writes that he considers that the Monarch is never common

under such very humid conditions.

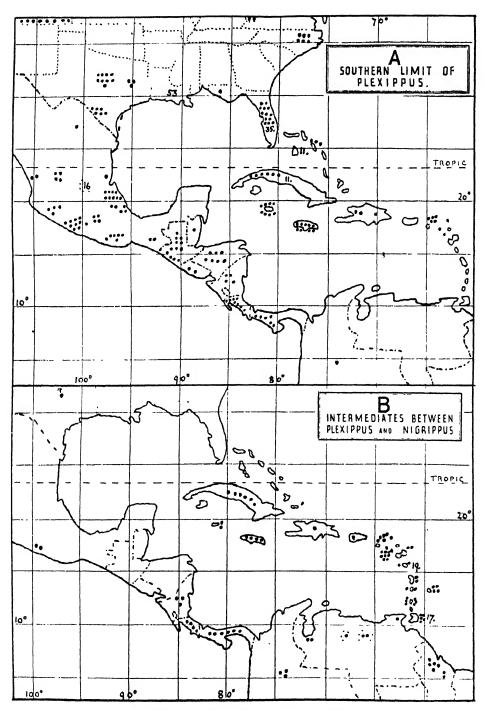
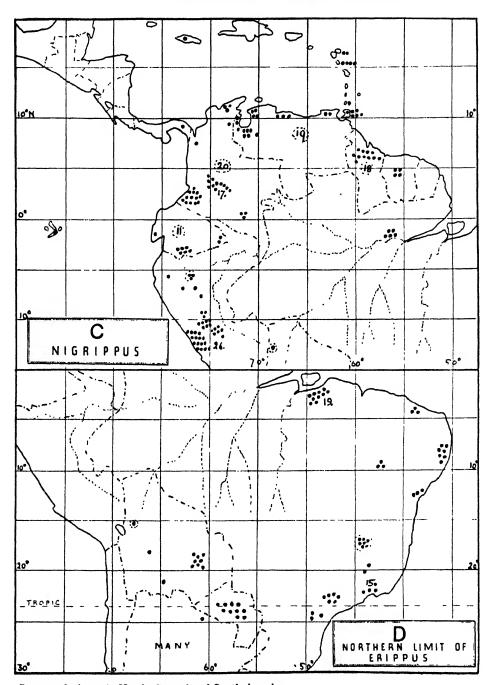


Fig. 18.—Map showing the distribution of the different geographical races of



Danaus plexippus in North, Central and South America.

The migrations and reproductive cycle of the Monarch butterfly in California.

By J. A. Downes.

In the Pacific Coast States Danaus plexippus L. performs migrations similar to those occurring in the East and Middle West, but the precise point of origin of the autumn migration, and the course of both the autumn and spring flights, seems to be largely unknown. However, several of the overwintering places, the termini of the autumn migration, are well known to West Coast entomologists, and are to a lesser extent recorded in the literature. The following notes deal with these overwintering places and with the behaviour and reproductive condition of the butterflies during the migrations and winter, for the seasons 1937–38 and 1938–39.

The overwintering sites. Williams (1938b) records the following localities as winter resting-places for the western population: Stinson Beach, Marin Co.; Pacific Grove, Monterey Co.; between Pismo and Oceano, San Luis Obispo Co., and probably southwards to San Diego; Santa Monica, Los Angeles Co., Laguna Beach, Orange Co., and southwards: all in California. For all these localities it was known that the same place and sometimes even the same group of trees had been used by a group of the butterflies in several or even many winters. I have myself observed these overwintering groups at Stinson Beach; El Cerrito, Contra Costa Co.; Pacific Grove; at seven localities on the coast from about 20 to 40 miles south of Pacific Grove; Pismo; Santa Barbara; Ventura; and three places in the immediate neighbourhood of San Diego. There are also reports, which I was not able to check personally, from the Berkeley campus of the University of California; the shore of Napa Creek; Tomales Bay, Marin Co.; and at a site 15 miles inland in Contra Costa Co. the known localities are in California, rather widely spread out along the coast of about 600 miles, extending from Stinson Beach (or possibly Tomales Bay) in the north to San Diego in the south; but there are undoubtedly others farther south along the coast of Baja California. Moreover, all localities are very close to the coast, or the shores of San Francisco Bay; nearly always within half a mile of the water, but as much as fifteen miles away at the possible inland Contra Costa Co. record.

In all cases the actual place chosen is a fairly large and dense group of trees, usually but not always in an exposed position such as on top of a cliff. tree chosen varies, and is probably not an important factor; at Pacific Grove it is Monterey Pine, at El Cerrito Monterey Cypress and Eucalyptus, and at most other places Eucalyptus alone. They are all evergreens, as are practically all the trees in the coastal regions. The butterflies settle on the leaves and twigs, fairly high up (always above 20 ft.), and, at least when the group is large, are exceedingly gregarious (Plate 2). Thus at Pacific Grove in the winter of 1938-39, of a group of the order of 10,000 individuals, at least nine-tenths were clustered on only five small branches where they hung in great masses almost obscuring the leaves. This spectacular massing has been observed at Pacific Grove, Pismo, Santa Barbara, Ventura, Santa Monica region, and San Diego, but in most places the groups are smaller (a hundred or so, and more usually only about a dozen) and the clustering, if it occurs, has not been noticed. In most places where large groups have been observed, and also at Stinson Beach and El Cerrito, it is a matter of common knowledge that the butterflies return every winter to the same group of trees, and sometimes even to the same branches; at Pacific Grove there are some permanent signposts to "The Butterfly Trees," which are one of the sights of the town. The

problem therefore presented itself to some entomologists: "How are the autumn butterflies, which are separated by from one to several generations from the group resident in the preceding winter, able to find their way year after year to these few small places from points perhaps many hundreds of miles away?" In reality, however, the situation is much simpler, as the following observations show. For twenty miles along the coast a little south of Pacific Grove (Nov. 1938) and for ten miles in the neighbourhood of San Diego (Jan. 1939) every suitable group of trees was examined; only fourteen possible sites were found, at ten of which at least a few Monarch butterflies were seen. is no doubt that this is typical of the situation along the whole coast from San Francisco to below the Mexican line. The fact that they occur at almost every suitable locality had previously been overlooked as in most cases the number of butterflies is very small. It would seem therefore that the butterflies reach any point on this long coast line and then collect at, or discover, practically all the groups of trees, remaining in numbers proportional to the suitability of the sites found. The migration is therefore merely to the coast, and not to particular small places.

Table 16.

Presence of spermatophores (indicating pairing having taken place) in overwintering females of *D. plexippus* in California.

Date	Place	No.	No. with the following nos. of spermatophores					
		o a di a di a di a di a di a di a di a d	0	1	2	3	4	5
24 Oct., 1938	Pacific Grove	12	8	4				
l Jan., 1939	San Diego	7	3	3	1	l		
7 Feb., 1939	Pacific Grove	5	1	4	_	_		
17 Feb., 1938	El Cerrito	12	5	6	1			
27 Feb., 1939	Pacific Grove	2		2				
7 April, 1939	San Francisco	1			1			
7 April, 1939	Stinson Beach	1			_			1
9 April, 1939	Pacific Grove	3		_	1	_	1	ī

The resting sites are not chosen for their proximity to the larval food-plant, since, at least in all localities north of Pismo, Asclepias is absent or very rare for many miles around the trees chosen, as recorded by Williams for Pacific Grove. Also, not all sites are sufficiently far south to avoid a considerable mortality through unfavourable weather conditions. At El Cerrito, on 17th Feb. 1938, a cold and rainy day, many of the butterflies were numb and helpless, and when blown off the trees were either drowned in the puddles beneath or carried out into the Bay. Others were found dead on the ground, apparently killed by the cold. This sort of thing probably happens quite frequently as most of the chosen groups of trees are in such exposed windswept places.

The overwintering butterflies. On normal days, however, a small proportion of each group is active, flying around the trees, feeding at flowers, and occasionally mating. It is therefore slightly inaccurate to speak of the butterflies as hibernating. In the group of about 10,000 at Pacific Grove in the winter of 1938-39, feeding and mating were observed on all the visits made: Oct. 24 (10 pairs mating); Feb. 4 (7 pairs); Feb. 27 (5 pairs); Mar. 19 (5 pairs) and April 9 (2 pairs). A little more information can be extracted from Table 16 based on

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an examination of the bursa for the presence of spermatophores. This shows that mating had started by 24th Oct., soon after the arrival of the autumn migrants; that most butterflies had mated once by the end of the winter; and that in early April, just before the start of the spring migration, individuals that had already mated did so again fairly frequently.

In March and April, a greater proportion of each group becomes active, flying around and feeding at almost any available flower, but a nucleus of the cluster remains until at least mid-April (Pacific Grove). During this time, occasional butterflies were observed up to six miles away from the Pacific Grove colony on sunny days, and a similar wandering occurs around other centres, but it is not known if such butterflies ever return to the parent cluster, which is still existing. It seems likely that each individual goes through this active period before starting on the migration proper.

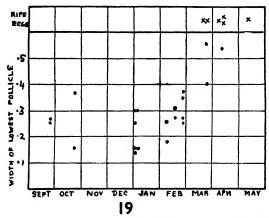


Fig. 19.—Width of the lowest follicle in the ovaries of overwintering *D. plexippus* in California arranged according to date of dissection.

The reproductive cycle during the winter is as follows.

I. The male. The spermatozoa are discharged from the testis into the vesicula seminalis and other parts of the genital ducts in elongate bundles each containing many spermatozoa. Spermatozoa in this condition are judged to be ripe.

A male bred from a Berkeley larva on 21st Sept. 1938, and dissected two days later, was found to have ripe sperm in the testis but none in the vesicula seminalis or in the lower part of the duct (the "paired gland" of Norris, 1932, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond. 1932: 595). Two males taken at Pacific Grove on 25th Sept. 1938, before the arrival of the main mass of the migrants, had ripe sperm in testis, vesicula and paired gland; while the same was true of two other males from there examined on 24th Oct. 1938, about two weeks after the arrival of the migrants. A male was also examined on 5th Feb. 1939 (Pacific Grove), another on 31st March 1939 (Berkeley), and two on 8th May 1938 (Pacific Grove): in the two former ripe sperm were present in testis, vesicula, and paired gland; in the latter the gland was not examined but sperm were found in both testis and vesicula. It appears therefore that ripe sperm occur in both testis and ducts very soon after emergence and before arrival of the migrants at Pacific Grove; and probably at all times during the winter until the spring migration.

II. The female. The overwintering female emerges from the pupa in September with all its egg-follicles quite small and unripe. They develop slowly during the winter months and the first females with ripe eggs (i.e., eggs with the shell formed) were observed on 26th March 1938 at Pacific Grove. Table 17 shows something of the course of development of the ovaries as judged by the width of the lowest (ripest) egg-follicle. The female has eight ovarioles, all in very nearly the same stage of development, and the figures given are the averages of the eight measurements taken from each individual. These results are shown diagrammatically in fig. 19.

Table 17.

Development of ovaries as indicated by the width of the lowest egg-follicle in overwintering D. plexippus in California.

Date	Place	Width of lowest follicle
24 Sept., 1938	Berkeley (just emerged)	0·25 mm.
,,	,, ,,	0.26
24 Oct., 1938	Pacific Grove	0.16
,,	**	0.37
1 Jan., 1939	San Diego	0.14
,,	,,	0.15
,,	,,	0.15
,,	,,	0.25
,,	,,	0.30
,,	,,	0.30
7 Feb., 1939	Pacific Grove	0.19
,,	,,	0.25
17 Feb., 1939	El Cerrito	0.28
,,	,•	0.31
27 Feb., 1939	Pacific Grove	0.25
,,	,,	0.28
,,	**	0.35
,,	"	0.37
26 Mar., 1938	,,	0.41
,,	,,	0.55
,,	**	1 ripe egg
,,	,,	6 ripe eggs
7 April, 1939	Stinson Beach	7 ripe eggs
9 April, 1939	Pacific Grove	0.53 mm.
,,	**	l ripe egg
,,	,,	5 ripe eggs
8 May, 1938	,,	1 ripe egg

It will be seen that there is only a very slight increase in egg-size until the end of February, followed by a stage of rapid growth in early March, for which period there are unfortunately no records. Growth during the winter months is, however, more active than would appear from the table, as it is being offset by an opposite process of egg degeneration, which continually destroys the largest follicles during this period. In some cases this degeneration at the lower end of the ovariole goes on faster than the upper eggs are growing: this accounts for those winter records in which the lowest egg is smaller than it is in newly emerged butterflies. The eggs are ripe and ready for laying from late March and early April onwards. No case was found of an overwintering individual that had laid eggs before the winter; always the plug separating the ovariole

proper from the oviduct was intact until the spring. It will also be seen that most females have already mated when their eggs were quite unripe; it is not known whether a second mating, in spring, is necessary, but as shown above such

a mating commonly takes place.

The migrations. The autumn migration to the Californian coast takes place usually in early October, but possibly is not complete until a month or more later. I have no exact records of the time of arrival of the butterflies at their overwintering sites, and the comparative scarcity of records of large flights in the West makes one suspect it is not always carried out by compact masses of butterflies as it is in the East. The males have at this time ripe sperm in both testes and ducts, while the females have the egg-follicles quite immature, hardly larger than they were in emergence, and degeneration is already setting in. Mating has either just started or will do so very soon.

As there are no discoverable records of the butterfly in inland California during the winter months the migration would seem to be complete, except for any females in egg-laying condition, which, as they never arrive at the coast,

presumably die inland before the winter.

The spring migration is certainly spread over a considerable period, and is carried out by butterflies moving more or less alone. The time of its start can be judged only from indirect observations. A female with 4 ripe eggs in each ovariole was taken at Alum Rock Park, Santa Clara Co., about 50 miles from the coast on 9th April 1938, and a dozen others were seen at the same place and time. Four males were taken in Owens Valley, some 200 miles inland, on 17th April On 14th May 1939 in the Yosemite Valley a well-grown larva was found; this pupated on 22nd May and emerged 9th June. The egg from which it developed had been laid probably about 20th April. Five newly-emerged adults, however, were found on 4th June at Mariposa; these must have come from eggs laid about 12th April. On 12th June adults and just-hatched second generation larvae were found east of Reno, Nevada, indicating that the migrants had penetrated about 250 miles inland by mid-April. All these data point to the fact that the spring migration is in progress in early April, and that the whole of California is repopulated by the middle of the month. The later discussion on the change in sex-ratio in the Pacific Grove colony will show that the first migrants probably leave in March. Many butterflies, however, are still at Pacific Grove in mid-April, and as will be seen some are still there as late as 8th May. It is indeed possible that the spring migration is never quite complete, as butterflies can be seen around Berkeley, 1-2 miles from the El Cerrito wintering site, at all times of the summer; these may, however, be individuals that have wintered farther south and performed a normal migration.

It seems therefore that the first butterflies migrate very soon after the eggs have begun to ripen, and that the others do so during the month (April) in which ripe eggs are to be found in those females that still remain at the overwintering places. The males migrate with ripe sperm in both testes and ducts. The reproductive condition of the males is thus seen to be the same, while that

of the females is very different, on the two journeys.

This account of the migrations was written from data obtained at Pacific Grove and northwards, and it is likely that the migration begins somewhat earlier farther south. Also, although in general the reproductive condition of the butterflies is the same in both southern and northern localities throughout the winter, as shown by the undeveloped condition of the San Diego females, exceptionally a southern female is found to be mature during the winter months. Thus two specimens were bred on 4th April and 7th April 1931 from eggs laid

in the wild at Fullerton, Orange Co., in December 1930 (Mr. J. W. Johnson), and females taken after their arrival at overwintering places near San Diego in November 1936 laid eggs after two weeks in captivity (Capt. Medlar). The migrating instincts of such unusual individuals are not known.

The sex-ratio of the overwintering butterflies. In most localities males and females occur in more or less equal numbers during the winter months. Fifteen males and 14 females were observed at San Diego, 1st Jan. 1939, and 10 males and 21 females at El Cerrito, 17th Feb. 1938. At the Pacific Grove colony, however, males consistently outnumbered females in both the 1937–38 and the 1938–39 season, and from the beginning of March onwards the proportion of females decreased still further until very few could be found, while the males remained in thousands until at least 8th May. The figures for those actually caught and sexed are as follows (the two seasons' records being combined).

Date	Males	Females	Ratio m.: f.
24 Oct., 1938	54	26	2.1:1
4 Feb., 1939	51	29	1.8:1
27 Feb., 1939	41	14	2.9:1
19 Mar., 1939	12	2	6.0:1
26 Mar., 1938	100	8	12.5:1
9 Apr., 1939	35	4	8.8:1
8 May, 1938	27	ī	27.0:1

Actually, the proportions on 26th March and 8th May 1938 were much more extreme than they appear from the table. Almost all the females seen on those days were mating, and it was apparent that the many single specimens were nearly always males. In all probability the sex-ratio on 26th March was of the order of 100:1 and on 8th May 1000:1. It is not known whether these males eventually migrated or whether they died at Pacific Grove. It is clear, however, that the spring migration of most groups is carried out by males and females together, and as noted above, males were found in Owens Valley, 17th April 1938. This unusual phenomenon at Pacific Grove is quite without an explanation.

Note by C. B. Williams:—As additional information on this point I may add that in the spring of 1932 at St. Paul, Minnesota, the first Monarch of the year that I captured on 30th May was a male, and of three others captured within the next week one was also a male. There is therefore positive evidence that both sexes migrate north simultaneously in the spring.

D. plexippus, migrations in North and Central America and the West Indies.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

Since my last summary of the migrations of this butterfly (Williams 1938b) a number of additional records have come in which are summarised below.

United States of America.

Alabama. In September 1936 Monarchs were observed in rather large numbers at Auburn by H. S. Swingle.

In the autumn of 1937 they were observed at Montgomery, moving to the S.E. with many C. eubule and D. vanillae, by P. H. Smyth.

Arkansas. Mr. A. M. Merrill of Rogers, Ark., writes: "Anosia plexippus passes through here in October and is usually scudding before a cold north wind, and very high in the clouds. Usually before the great hosts arrive there will be thousands flying slowly near the ground, and a little south by south-east. These take their time and often rest at night on tree limbs in such weights as to bend the limb almost to the ground. When a 'northerner' strikes they rise and go with it night and day till they reach warmer weather. Sometimes they are accompanied by Pyrrhanaea andria in their high flights. . . . One night in October 1921 I went out into the yard to view the moon. I had a three-inch telescope and the wind blew hard from the north. In looking at the moon we saw thousands of Anosia and Pyrrhanaeas passing over the field of the telescope. They numbered probably millions but could only be seen as they neared the light of the moon."

California. The most northerly point at which I have records of hibernation of Monarchs is on the coast just north of San Francisco at Stinson Beach and Bolinas.

At Stinson Beach Mrs. Atherton-Coleman writes that in 1937 they arrived in late summer and remained until March 1938, hanging thick about the Eucalyptus and Escallonias. During March they broke up and by the 4th April only a few bedraggled specimens with broken wings were seen here and there. She writes: "I cannot help noticing their fondness for the coast; inland they seem scarce."

In 1938 they began to arrive about the end of October and swarmed all

through November.

At the Bolinas, according to Mr. A. R. Duperu, they appeared about 1st September 1937. In November 1937, Mr. Duperu sent 50 specimens which included 29 males and 21 females. The butterflies left during March and only a few stragglers were present on the 1st April. In 1938–39 they arrived during August and left about 31st March.

At Pacific Grove, Monterey, many observations have already been recorded. In the autumn of 1937, according to Mr. Alan Forbes, the butterflies arrived about the 10th-20th October. He says, "I was not able to observe any massed arrival, the butterflies increased day by day, noticeably." On the other hand, he quotes a record from the previous year (1936) when they were seen by an observer to arrive in a swarm about five o'clock in the evening from the direction of Santa Cruz (north).

During October and November five or six mating pairs were seen, and again during March 1938 when Mr. Forbes sent me four pairs captured when mating. In the spring of 1938 they began to leave about the 25th March. By the 20th April there were still plenty about but they were more and more scattered. On 18th October 1937 Mr. Forbes sent me 21 specimens which included only 3 females, and on 8th March 1938 a dozen more (apart from the four pairs) which included only 3 females (see p. 165).

In the autumn of 1938 they were observed by Miss M. Bondfield. "They began to arrive on Saturday, 8th October, just a few. On Sunday 9th the swarm was beginning to settle on the trees and they were already an astonishing sight. On 10th October the whole swarm had practically arrived, as only an occasional one could still be seen in the air."

A full account of Mr. J. A. Downes' observations at this locality will be found

on p. 160.

Two new records of directional flights are also available for California. In August 1912, at Marble Mts., Siskyou County, California (according to a record from Mr. Alan Forbes), an observer at the summit of the pass, much lower than the surrounding mountains, suddenly came upon an amazing line of butterflies. They were coming up the slope as far as could be seen, then crossing the summit and immediately descending in line far beyond vision. The flight was watched for half an hour and was still passing "in countless millions." Nearly all were from 10 to 20 feet above the ground and they never alighted.

In mid or late September in 1917 or 1918, near Los Angeles, Mr. P. M. Gillmer saw a big scattered flight one evening about sundown. One individual every 20-30 feet in all directions and up to at least 100 feet high. The general direction of the movement was to the south. It was said to be a regular occurrence in the district.

Connecticut. Britton (1934, Rept. Conn. State Ent.: 251) says that in 1934 the Monarch was unusually common and thousands were seen clustered on the trees at Sacham Head, Guildford, on 20th August. They settled at 7-7.30 p.m. and resumed flight the next morning.

District of Columbia. According to a letter from Dr. E. Murray-Aaron, a flight was observed in Washington, D.C., by Dr. Ashmead at the end of

September 1893.

Florida. Notes on the occurrence of the Monarch in Florida as observed

by Mr. and Mrs. K. Hodges will be found on p. 147.

Mrs. W. G. Colvin, writing from Davenport, Florida, says that in the fall of 1937 the first was seen on 20th November, another about a week later, and then one or two others. Then came a frost which killed the Poinsettias and until the end of March 1938 not one was seen. "Never seen so few butterflies for 11 years."

In the fall of 1938 they began to arrive early in November and were seen in moderate numbers up to the 3rd February. Mrs. Colvin writes that no

Monarchs are seen except during the winter months.

At Englewood (on the west coast of Florida) Mr. W. F. Smith reports about 47 seen in December 1937, but none from 1st January to 4th April 1938, including observations made on a trip to the extreme south of Florida at the end of January. In the fall of 1938, 14 were seen between 22nd and 30th November, 87 in December and 36 in the first three weeks in January. In December 1938 Mr. Smith marked several Monarchs by clipping their wings. The longest period during which any one was observed was 11 days.

Georgia. Mr. T. L. Bissell writes (in 1937), "About five years ago (i.e., about 1932) at Experiment, Georgia, I saw about 200-300 Monarchs moving round a water tank and adjacent trees one day in the fall. They were about

50 feet in the air."

In the fall of 1933 L. Harris observed a noticeable flight towards the S.E. at Atalanta, Georgia. The butterflies were flying high in the air, often several visible at once from the ninth floor of an office building.

At the end of September and beginning of October 1934 and 1935, congre-

gations were observed at Marietta, according to Mr. W. A. Ruffin.

Illinois. Shannon (1935) on map p. 157 records flights to the south at Winchester, Illinois, for 25 years.

In the fall of 1934, Dr. E. Murray-Aaron observed desultory stragglers in

small flights of a few dozen to some hundreds over the Skokee Marshes, north of Chicago.

On 5th September 1934, according to Mr. P. Viosca, thousands of large butterflies, believed to be Monarchs, appeared high in the air round the lights of the Chicago Exhibition.

Indiana. On the 6th September 1934 during a cold north-east wind, hundreds of Monarchs were found clustered in trees on the Indiana Dunes State Park

on the south shores of Lake Michigan, according to P. Viosca.

On 20th September 1937, at New Haven, Ind., Mr. C. Fredrickson observed a migration of Monarchs to the south about one mile from the town. About 500-1000 individuals were flying about 6 feet from the ground with a N.W. wind. It was growing dusk and temperature about 75° F.

Iowa. Mr. F. Braillian writes that in the first weeks of May 1884, in Iowa he saw large numbers of Monarchs flying to the north. This is one of the few

records of the mass flight to the north in the spring.

In late September 1916, according to Shannon (1935, map p. 157), there was a flight to the south at Alexandria, which appears to be in either S.E. Iowa or N.E. Missouri.

Kansas. Prof. H. R. Bryson writes (Dec. 1937), "We notice migrations of the Monarch at Manhattan, Kansas, in October. Usually they go almost straight south. They may arrive at 10 a.m. and all be gone by 1.30 or 2.0 p.m. I recall last fall (1936) counting 23 at one time on a Morning Glory vine at noon, but all had gone by 2 p.m."

Smith and Kelley (1938) report that the first individuals of 1937 were seen

in Eastern Kansas on 15th June and in Riley Co. on 21st June.

Kentucky. Mr. W. A. Price writes (Nov. 1937), "Nearly every year from 22nd to 30th September Prof. Garman and Miss Didlake have noted these insects from the windows of the laboratory at Lexington, Ky., not crowded but scattered individuals always flying southwards."

Mr. C. O. Eddy writes that he has observed similar flights at Lexington for a number of years. Huge migrations take place which extend at least for several miles on each side of the town. The mass movements are usually over in two or three days but may last about a week. Once he saw one just as a storm was coming up. The butterflies massed on the sheltered side of a tree but did not settle until the rain began. They then flew towards refuge places under the limbs and lighted on leaves, stems and bark.

On 30th September 1933, at Camp Nelson, about 20 miles south of Lexington, hundreds were observed settled on the limbs of a Sugar Maple tree by Prof. H.

Garman and Miss M. Didlake.

On 20th October 1934 great numbers were observed going to the south at

Lexington by Mr. W. A. Price.

Louisiana. Mr. P. Viosca writes: "Although Monarchs are absent in the deep south during the summer months, they arrive along the Gulf coast in numbers during October and November, apparently with northerly winds. Danaus berenice, although only a small percentage of the total, takes part in the migration. If the weather moderates after they reach the Gulf coast they linger awhile and even lay eggs. On one occasion I observed a full crop of caterpillars on a species of Milkweed near New Orleans. After this migration we do not see any more throughout the winter."

In 1934, on 20th and 27th October, Mr. Viosca saw small numbers flying to the south over Lake Pontcharitrain, north-east of New Orleans, and on the

26th in New Orleans itself.

In November 1937 Mr. Viosca captured 57 specimens in St. Tammany Parish and sent them to Dr. A. H. Clark at Washington, who reported that 3

males and 1 female were of the nigrippus form.

In 1930 the first Monarch of the spring was seen on 26th March and the first of the autumn on 20th September. After this none was seen until 8th October and then occasional individuals throughout October; all these were in the New Orleans area.

On the other hand, Dr. P. B. Hussey, D. C. Elliott and H. A. Jaynes write

that they have never observed mass movements in Louisiana.

Maryland. At the end of September 1893 a swarm was observed at Baltimore by Dr. Uhler, according to information received from Dr. E. Murray-Aaron.

In 1937, according to E. N. Cory (1937), they began to assemble at Piney Point, St. Mary's Co., on 7th October, and by the following day over 500 had assembled in the neighbourhood. He sprayed them with a green dye, but has

not recorded any recaptures.

Massachusetts. Mr. W. T. M. Forbes reports that in 1899, 1900 and 1901 at Worcester, Mass., the Monarchs gathered each fall in a beech tree at the foot of his grounds, hung about for a few days and then disappeared all at once. There were only about a thousand and invariably on the one tree. He suggests that they were gathering here from the surrounding square mile or so preparatory to moving south.

According to Mr. K. Merrill, Monarchs appeared in great numbers on Great Misery Island, off Manchester, Mass., at the end of August in 1934 and 1936. They did not appear in numbers on the mainland until about two weeks later.

Mississippi. Mr. C. Lyle writes that in 1923 at the end of October or early November he observed large concentrations of Monarchs massing on low-hanging, moss-draped branches of live-oak. This was on the Gulf coast of Mississippi about 6 or 7 miles west of the city of Bay St. Louis and only a few yards from the shore. They showed no signs of fear, and large numbers could be captured by hand.

At the same time large numbers were observed flying from east to west at Bay St. Louis, while equally large numbers of C. eubule were flying towards

the east.

New Jersey. Dr. E. Murray-Aaron records that on 25th and 26th September 1893 at Frenchtown, N.J., on the Delaware River about 30 miles north of Trenton, he saw a migration of Monarchs heading to the south for two days, following the course of the river, and flying against a steady head wind.

New Mexico. Mr. P. R. Gleason, writing September 1939, says that in June 1939 he saw no Monarchs, in July only one and in August about three.

New York State. In September 1920 Mr. V. D. Carr observed large numbers of Monarchs near Rochester settling on a dead oak about 35-40 feet high. All small branches and many of the larger were covered with butterflies. Some were coming in from the north from over the lake.

In September 1935 Mr. Carr observed a flight from the north at Port Bay, about 50 miles east of Rochester. These made two sharp turns over the water (see discussion on p. 226). Many thousands passed in a narrow belt only 10-12 feet wide.

One day in mid-September 1935, according to Mrs. L. B. Unkefer at Endicott, N.Y., the air was filled with butterflies going to the south-west. Not a compact swarm but always many visible: mostly 10–20 feet up, and flying nearly against the wind.

Mr. Mahuken reports that in the fall of the same year they were moving south in New York City, and again in the first half of September 1939; they were going south-west in most cases against a wind of about 10 m.p.h. None was noticed there in 1936, 1937 or 1939.

North Carolina. Mr. C. S. Brimley writes that some time before 1919 in the springtime in North Carolina some boys brought him a number of Monarchs with the statement that there were quantities more in a clover field then in bloom. It was probably in April.

Mr. F. Sherman writes that in the autumn of 1920 he saw a definite flight at Raleigh, N.C.; each minute 20-30 would cross a front of 100 yards, the great

majority going from north to south.

Mr. R. Dayton writes that at the beginning of October 1935 at Carolina Beach, 15 miles south of Wilmington, N.C., he saw a slight movement of Monarchs towards the south along with *P. eubule*. He adds that some stayed so late that they were paralysed with the cold and could be picked up by hand.

Pennsylvania. At the end of September 1893 for 3 or 4 days at Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, Dr. H. Skinner observed numbers of Monarchs congregating

(according to E. Murray-Aaron).

South Carolina. Mr. F. Sherman writes that for 37 years he has worked chiefly in the two adjoining states of N. and S. Carolina. The Monarch becomes more abundant and conspicuous in the fall than at any other time, and the drift of flight seems to be southerly. The adults appear again in spring in fewer numbers and most appear worn, faded and often tattered. The drift northward in the spring does not seem so well defined as the southward drift in the autumn.

Mr. O. L. Cartwright reports that on 4th October 1934, between Walhalla and Clemson, S.C., Monarchs were seen about 10-25 per mile of road, all flying slowly to the south about 3-6 feet above the ground. Ninety-five were counted

in 5 miles.

Mr. J. A. Berly writes that he has never seen any large migration in South

Carolina but that each fall they appear to be travelling to the south.

Tennessee. Dr. E. Murray-Aaron records that in the autumn of both 1874 and ?1879 he saw flights of Monarchs in the Smoky Mountains between North Carolina and Tennessee. They were flying towards the south-east, passing through the gap of the Little Tennessee River.

Many years later Mr. G. M. Bentley observed a great congregation in the same area. He writes: "About 1929, in the Smoky Mountains, after a rain storm, trees were seen weighed down with butterflies, so that the lower limbs bent down 4-5 feet to touch the ground. About 10 a.m. the next day the butterflies began to detach themselves, flying round a little till myriads were flying in a hesitating flight to south and west."

Mr. Bentley notes that regular flights to the south occur in the State from mid-October to mid-November.

Mr. F. Braillian writes that on the Sequatchie Valley not far from Ohattanovga, Tenn., "there is an almost perpendicular rock wall, several hundred feet high, that practically locks the fall migration of the Monarch, and they sometimes gather together in a cove against the wall by thousands. Usually they finally find their way out and complete their migration, but I had a report two or three years ago from a man living there that severe freezing weather came before several thousand of these butterflies had found their way out and apparently killed them all."

At Bolivar observations were taken by Mr. C. McR. Plummer in 1938 and 1939. In October of 1938 he saw a few only travelling to south-east. In

October 1939 the first was seen on 12th October and in the last week small numbers were going chiefly to the south.

Texas. E. Murray-Aaron writes that in 1884, probably in early October,

he saw numbers of Monarchs coming in over the sea at Corpus Christi.

In the same locality in 1938 Mr. B. Struck observed many Monarchs flying to the south from the 10th to 14th November. He states that he has observed this southward movement in Texas for some years but never in very large numbers.

Canada.

According to Mr. K. Bowman, a large congregation and migration to the south was noted by Mr. D. Gregson at Blackfalds, Alberta, in the "late nineties." Blackfalds is about 100 miles south of Edmonton.

Mexico.

Through the kindness of Dr. E. Murray-Aaron I am able to record that in 1890 the late Sir Rider Haggard observed a flight of thousands of Monarchs towards the south in Orizaba, Mexico. Dr. Aaron met him a few days later and confirmed the identification from some specimens that he had captured. This is the only record of flight at present known in Mexico.

Porto Rico.

F. Sein (1929) describes a flight of Monarchs flying towards the east in Porto Rico in "November" but gives no date or exact locality.

Mr. J. I. Otero reports to Mr. G. N. Wolcott that the flight was in 1928 and that he first noticed Monarchs in San Juan flying against the N.E. trade wind (i.e., from south-west to north-east) about a month after the hurricane of San Felipe, which was on the 13th Sept. 1928. The same day he noticed them also at Santurce and Rio Piedras. Most were at a considerable elevation and only a few came down to the ground. The flight lasted for about a week.

Mr. W. A. Hoffmann, referring to what he thinks is the same flight, says, however, that the butterflies seemed to be following the north coast and going in a westerly direction. Innumerable butterflies passed on one day and a few

stragglers on the next.

General Summary.

In the map (fig. 20) and the diagram (fig. 21) will be found summarised all the available data on the dates, localities and direction of flights in North America.

From the map (which shows only the autumn flights) it will be seen that there is a general southerly movement over the whole of the eastern half of the U.S.A. and the great Mississippi Valley, and again movement along the Pacific coast. There is no evidence of mass migration through the mountainous belt of the Rockies.

Hibernation is recorded in Southern California and in Florida. The butterflies which pass south through Texas appear to carry on into Mexico, where I have only one single record of a southward migration (see above) and none of mass hibernation. In Louisiana there are at present no records of hibernation and some evidence that the butterflies are absent both in summer and winter: that is to say, are "birds of passage" only.

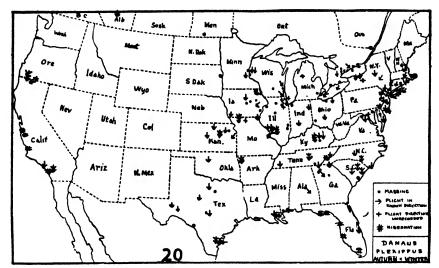


Fig. 20.—Recorded flights and hibernating localities of D. plexippus in North America.

From the geographical distribution of the races (p. 158) it seems possible that the North American migrant may cross the sea to the larger West Indian Islands, Cuba and Haiti and perhaps Jamaica, but it is unlikely that they go any farther across the Caribbean Sea.

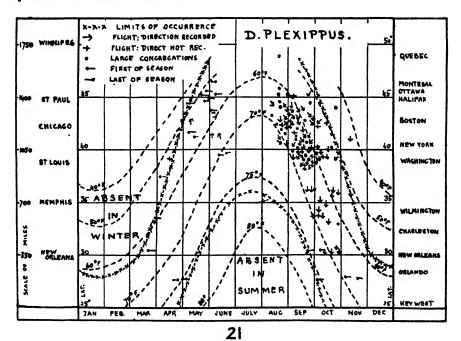


Fig. 21.—Diagram showing the movements of *D. plexippus* in eastern North America according to time of year and latitude.

The diagram (fig. 21) is an attempt to show movements both in time and distance, north and south, in the same figure. Each recorded flight is put in in its corresponding date and latitude. Superimposed on the flight records are the isotherms for the mean temperature. It will be seen that the last butterflies appear to leave Florida in the spring when the mean temperature rises above 75° F. and they begin to return at about the same temperature level. There is definite evidence in Florida of a period of summer absence. Possibly, however, they persist farther north, in Georgia, and in N. and S. Carolina, with mean temperature above 75° F.

They do not seem to arrive in the north until the mean is over 50° F. and leave again before the mean falls below the same level. They move both south and north more rapidly than the isotherms, with the result that they are moving steadily into cooler climates as they go north in the spring and into warmer

ones as they go south in the autumn.

The most important points now to be settled are to find how far north the zone of complete absence extends in the summer; how far north winter hibernation can occur; and hence what is the extent of the area (which seems to exist in Louisiana) in which the butterflies appear only in spring and autumn. More observations in Mexico and Central America are specially needed.

Migrations in S. America (D. erippus).

In my previous summary only two records of flight were given; both seen by Hayward in the Argentine Republic in March and April and both towards the north. They were therefore moving towards the Equator in the autumn.

Dr. Malcolm Burr informs me that he saw a big flight of this butterfly at the mouth of the River Plate, near Buenos Aires, at the beginning of April 1891.

From his notebook the following extracts are taken:—

"2 April 1891—Today a swarm of big butterflies came off from the shore and I was all the time catching them. With others to help me I got 68 specimens.

"3 April. Today we caught another.

"4 April. Today we caught some more, making the total 72."

He had arrived in Buenos Aires on 21st March and left on 6th April but was unable to go ashore owing to quarantine. No note was made at the time of the exact direction of flight.

A. Wetmore (1926) states that he has observed migrational movements of *D. erippus* "that wintered in numbers in the Chaco and in the spring flew southward to spread over the pampas." The Chaco is in north Argentine and the adjoining portions of Bolivia and Paraguay. In a letter he adds: "I first observed *D. erippus* in July and August in the Chaco. The insect was very common here. . . . In October I saw them moving down into the open Pampas Country to the south and observed them occasionally throughout the summer. In February, in Uruguay, they were again in evidence. I did not see the great migratory flights in S. America that I have watched on occasion in U.S.A."

In addition to the above records of directional flight there are two records of the capture of the insect out at sea in the Atlantic. In the British Museum is a specimen labelled "23 February 1931, at sea 60 miles off Rio Plata, Brazil" captured by W. W. Holmes on H.M.S. Eagle. On 20th February 1939, a female was captured on S.S. Alcantara when in Lat. 12° 22′ N., Long. 27° 01′ West while on a voyage from S. America to Europe. This is only about 200 miles south of the Cape Verde Islands and much nearer to Africa than to S.

America. The specimen was sent to me by Mr. E. M. Barker. It is remarkable that a S. American *erippus* should be found so far from shore when the Monarchs caught in the Cape Verde, Canaries and Azores are all typical N. American forms.

D. plexippus in Great Britain.

In the past sixty-four years, 57 individuals of *D. plexippus* have been captured in England, Wales and Ireland and a further 94 reported as having been seen but not captured. No specimen has been reported from Scotland.*

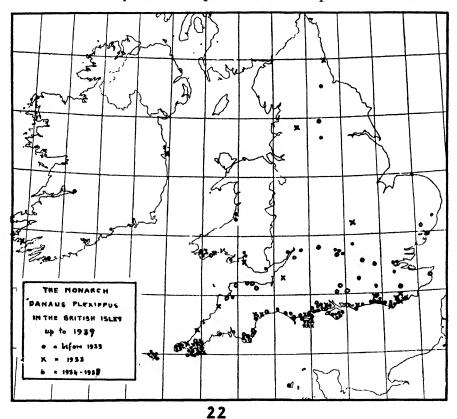


Fig. 22.—Map showing the position of records of D. plexippus in the British Isles.

Brief details of all those captured together with the first reference traced for each are given in Table 18. The localities of capture are all marked on the map (fig. 22).

It will be seen that the great majority are along the south coast of England, with a few along the south coast of Wales and Ireland and only a relatively small number inland. The farthest north capture is one in Co. Durham in Sept. 1933.*

The capture of Monarchs each year in Britain is shown diagrammatically

* Since this was written one has been captured in the Shetland Islands, see Table 18 no. 151.

TABLE 18.

List of British records of D. plexippus.

1. 1876, Sept. 6. Neath, Glamorgan.

Female caught by J. Stafford (J. D. Llewelyn, Ent. mon. Mag. 13:108) seen alive by Llewelyn. Now in British Museum.

1876, Sept., 2nd week. Keymer, Sussex.
 One caught by A. Wood (F. Bond, Entomologist 10: 73).

3. 1876, Oct. Haywards Heath, Sussex.

Female caught by a labourer (T. E. Crallan, Entomologist 9: 265). Identity checked by J. J. Weir and Douglas. "Female of North American form." "Lower wings still wrinkled and not long out of chrysalis."

4. (1876). Poole, Dorset.

One caught by a coastguard and seen in a wall case by Eaton (A. E. Eaton, Ent. mon. Mag. 22: 161).

1881, Sept. 21. Snodland, nr. Maidstone, Kent.
 One caught by F. J. Hawes (J. J. Weir, Entomologist 19: 12).

6. 1884, Sept. 12. Ventnor, Isle of Wight.

One caught by a newspaper boy and bought by Westropp (D. Westropp, Ent. mon. Mag. 21:202).

7. 1885, Aug. Exmouth, Devon.

One caught by a "friend of a cabman," seen by Hellins (J. Hellins, Ent. mon. Mag. 22: 211).

8. 1885, Sept. early. Ventnor, Isle of Wight.

One seen by L. Arnold; flew within a foot of observer (J. J. Weir, Entomologist 18:305).

9. 1885, Sept. 17. Nr. Lizard, Cornwall.

Caught by A. H. Jenkin (Entomologist 18:291). Now in Truro Museum. Locality given later as "Carthillian Cove.

10-11. 1885, Sept. 21. Trevilley, Cornwall. One caught and one seen by H. Saundry (R. J. Anderson, Entomologist 18:290). Seen by Barrett (Brit. Lep. 1:114).

12-13. 1885, Sept. 24. Housel Bay, Lizard, Cornwall.

Two caught by A. H. Jenkin (Entomologist 18:291). Now in Truro Museum.

14. 1885, Sept. 25. Plymouth, Devon.

One caught by F. F. Freeman (1885, Proc. ent. Soc. Lond.: xxv). Seen alive by G. F. Mathew on day after capture (Entomologist 54:211); also referred to by Walker (Ent. mon. Mag. 50: 290).

Walker (Ent. mon. Mag. 50: 227) refers to a specimen said to have been caught at "Downderry, Cornwall" by Freeman on the same date as the above and gives the reference to the Proc. ent. Soc. as above. It is practically certain that Freeman did not catch two specimens on the same day, and all evidence points to Plymouth as the correct locality. The first reference I have found to "Downderry" is that by Walker in 1914, thirty years after the supposed capture. Where his information came from I cannot trace. See also no. 26.

15. 1885, Sept. 26. Parkstone, nr. Poole, Dorset.

One caught by T. G. Cuthell (Ent. mon. Mag. 22: 134).

16. 1885, Sept. 29. Nr. Lizard, Cornwall.

One seen by A. H. Jenkin (Entomologist 18: 291). Locality later given as Housel

17. 1885, Sept., end. Castel Martin, Pembroke.

One caught by T. Mousley and given to Wilkinson (C. Wilkinson, Entomologist 19:298).

18. 1886, Aug. 14. Lyme Regis, Dorset.

One female caught by N. V. Sidgwick (J. J. Walker, Ent. mon. Mag. 50: 290). Now in Hope Department, Oxford.

19. 1886, Aug. 19. Swanage, Dorset.

One caught by J. E. Mowlem (Entomologist 19: 247).

20. 1886 (Sept. early). Swanage, Dorset.

One caught by a cottager and given to Stenning early in September, but not definitely stated when it was caught (G. C. Stenning, Entomologist 19: 277).

21. 1886, Sept. 30. Bournemouth, Hants.

One male caught by T. Watts and given to W. McRae (McRae, Entomologist **19**: 277).

22. 1886, Sept. Glanafon, Glamorgan. One caught by H. W. Vivian (R. M. Richardson, Ent. mon. Mag. 50: 249). In 1914 in Nat. Mus. Wales, Cardiff.

1886, Sept. or Oct. Housel Bay, Lizard, Cornwall. One seen by A. H. Jenkin (Entomologist 19: 276).

24. 1886, Oct. 2. St. Peters Port, Guernsey, Channel Is.

One caught by A. H. Collings (W. A. Luff, Entomologist 19: 278).

25. 1886, —. Shanklin, Isle of Wight.

One caught by J. A. Billings (Entomologist 20: 39, quoting a newspaper).

26. **1886**, --Cornwall.

Specimen in Nat. Mus. Wales at Cardiff with this data, from coll. H. W. Vivian, according to N. M. Richardson (1914, Ent. mon. Mag. 50: 249). In the minutes of the meeting of the Entomological Society held on 6th October 1886 there is a statement that Mr. F. F. Freeman reported the capture of a specimen of D. plexippus in Cornwall. This record does not appear in the published Proceedings of the meeting. The specimen referred to may be that now at Cardiff.

27. 1887, Sept. 14. Worthing, Sussex.
One caught by F. H. Stewart (Entomologist 21: 321).

28. 1887, Sept. 15. Worthing, Sussex.

One seen by F. H. Stewart (Entomologist 21:321).

29. 1888, —. Penarth Dock, Glamorgan.

One caught (Hallett, 1917, Trans. Cardiff Nat. Hist. Soc. 50: 48).

30. 1890, Oct. 2. Eastbourne, Sussex.

One seen by A. H. Clarke (Ent. mon. Mag. 26: 327); flew out to sea.

31. 1894, Aug. Brighton, Sussex.

One seen by W. E. Blackiston, from his diary and "contemporary newspaper" (T. Dannreuther, 1935, Entomologist 68: 136).

32. (1894.) Aylesbury, Buckinghamshire.

One seen about this year by W. Crouch (F. W. Frohawk, 1915, Entomologist 48:266).

33. (1895.) Shanklin, Isle of Wight.

One captured by a visitor (Poole, in Morley's Guide to Nat. Hist. of Isle of Wight: 398).

34. 1896, May 28. Lymington, Hants.

One seen by E. G. B. Meade-Waldo (6.v.1896, The Field 87:856; also Entomologist 29:216). Recorded as chrysippus but editorial says probably plexippus.

35. 1896, June 12. Newlands Corner, Surrey.

One seen by a friend (W. J. Lucas, Entomologist 30: 18), recorded as menippe. 36. 1896, Aug. Newchurch, Isle of Wight.

One seen by W. S. Worsley-Benison (Ent. mon. Mag. 38: 113).

37. 1896, Sept. Lizard, Cornwall. One seen by Miss Jenkin (A. P. Jenkin, Entomologist 29: 365).

38. 1899, —. Weymouth, Dorset. One caught by G. and J. Joliffe. Wings found in a curiosity shop and purchased by N. M. Richardson (Ent. mon. Mag. 50: 249).

39. 1906, Sept. 29. Felixstowe, Suffolk.

One seen by T. Barrett (1906, Country Side: 275, see also T. S. Barrett, Trans. Suffolk N.H. Soc. 1:30).

40. 1908, —. North Oxford.

One caught by a gardener and brought to Rev. M. Merry (J. J. Walker, Ent. mon. Mag. 64:90).

41. 1908, Sept. 13. Culver Cliffs, Isle of Wight.

One found lying dead on grass, but not yet stiff, by G. H. Heath (Ent. Rec. **20** : 237).

42. 1910, Autumn. North Oxford.

One male captured by a young lady (J. J. Walker, Ent. mon. Mag. 64:90). Now in Hope Dept. Oxford. Male of N. American type.

43. 1916, Oct. 20. Castle Townsend, Co. Cork, Ireland.

One caught by H. Chevasse (4.xi.1916, The Field 128: 714; see also F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 49: 285). Now in coll. F. W. Frohawk. Female, figured in Frohawk's Natural History Brit. Butterflies.

44. 1917, Sept. 17. Kirkheaton Tip, nr. Huddersfield, Yorks.

One caught by C. Cameron (B. Morley, Naturalist 1928: 47). In Huddersfield Museum.

TABLE 18 (Continued).

45. 1917, Oct. 1. Instow, Devon.
One seen by G. F. Mathew (Entomologist 54: 211).

46. 1918, Aug. 19. Porthcurno, Cornwall.

One female caught by M. L. Wandle (J. G. Wandle, 21.ix.1918, The Field 132: 263; see also F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 51: 256).

47-48. 1920, —. Tilbury, Essex.

Two specimens said by F. W. Buxton, purser of a steamer, to have come over on the boat from Norfolk, Virginia, and to have flown away on reaching Tilbury (F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 54: 145).

49. 1923, Aug. 28. Selmeston, nr. Berwick, Sussex.

One male captured,? by J. C. Tunnard (20.ix.1923, The Field 142: 427). Seen by F. W. Frohawk (Entomologist 56: 258).

50-51. 1923, Sept. Portslade, Sussex.

One caught and one seen by Mrs. Brown and given to A. H. Griffith (Griffith, Entomologist 58:97). Now in Nat. Mus. Wales at Cardiff.

52. 1926, Sept. Cockerton, nr. Darlington, Durham.

One captured,? by E. O. D. Sibson (Entomologist 60:82). Now in Darlington Museum.

53. 1926, Sept. Headlington Hill, Oxford.

One seen almost daily for a fortnight by E. W. Gordon (L. Dawes, Ent. mon. Mag. **64** : 90).

1926, Sept. 8. Nr. Countisbury, Devon.
 One seen by S. Morris (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71: 220).

55. 1928, Sept. 5. Llanmadoc, Gower, Glamorgan.

One seen by H. E. David (Entomologist 61:250).

56. 1929, Aug. 12. Kimmeridge, Dorset. One believed to have been seen by H. L. Andrewes (Entomologist 63:67): identification not very certain.

57. 1929, Oct. 12. Niton, Isle of Wight.

One seen by R. Prendergast (16.x.28, Times; see also Ent. mon Mag. 65: 261).

58. 1930. Ruan Minor, Cornwall.

One seen by A. L. Crossman (26.x.33, Western Morning News; see Nicholson, Entomologist 68: 248).

-. [1930, Aug. P20. Upper Clapton, N.E. London.

According to C. W. V. Gane a small boy captured two Monarchs which were taken to the Natural History Museum and identified by N. D. Riley as the Indian Monarch Danaus genutiae (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71: 218).]

59. 1931, June? Framlingham, Suffolk.
One seen by C. H. S. Vinter (1933, Trans. Suffolk N.H. Soc. 2: 104).

60. 1931, Oct. 3. Modbury, Devon.
One seen by H. E. Hooppell (8.v.1933, Western Morning News; see also C. Nicholson, Entomologist 68: 248).

61-64. 1932, end Aug. and Sept. Tresco Abbey, Scillies.

Two seen by a clerk at end August, one seen by a "man" and another by A. A. D. Smith in September (Smith, 1933, Entomologist 66: 6).

65. 1932, Sept. 15. Llanbadarn Fawr, nr. Aberystwyth, Cardigan.

One seen by J. H. Saltern (1932, N. West. Naturalist 7: 315).

66. 1932, Sept. 16. Burton Bradstock, nr. Bridport, Dorset.

One seen by K. Trenchard Cox (1.x.1932, Times; see also Williams, 1933a: 7). 67. 1932, Sept. 20P Fossebridge, Gloucester.

One seen by C. F. Parks (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71: 220).

68. 1932 (Sept. 21). Bognor, Sussex.

One seen by E. H. Hewett (5.x.1932, Times; also Ent. Rec. 45: 45). Date not in original.

69. 1932, Sept. 26. New Milton, Hants.

One caught by Mr. Sturmey (F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 66: 27). Now in coll. of Sir B. Whitehouse of Birmingham.

70. 1932, Oct. 1. Abbotsbury, Dorset.

One seen by E. H. Smyth (Entomologist 65: 284).

71. 1932, Oct. (20). Portheurno, Cornwall.

One caught by A. J. Gardiner (C. Bartlett, Entomologist 67:248). Now in collection of A. J. Gardiner.

72. 1932, Oct. 22. Corbally, Limerick, Ireland.

One seen by N. H. Wilson (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 68: 249).

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73. 1933, June 14-18. Nelson, Lancs.

One seen by J. Wensley, verified by W. G. Clutter (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67:11).

74. 1933, July 4 or 5. Corfe Castle, Dorset.

One seen by D. C. Thomas (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67: 209).

75-79. 1933, July 14. Off Seacombe Cliffs, Dorset.

Five seen three miles out at sea by Mr. Bower (F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist **66** : 250).

80. 1933, Aug. 11. Nr. Ditchling Beacon, Sussex.

One seen by G. T. St. J. Steadman (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71: 220).

81. 1933, Aug. 16. Off Seacombe Cliffs, Dorset.

One seen about 31 miles out at sea by Mr. Bower (F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist **66** : 250).

82. 1933, Sept. Off Margam, Glamorgan.

One seen by H. David (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 68: 249).

83. 1933, Sept. Hawthorne Dene, Durham.

One captured by a student [Miss Farmer]. Seen by J. D. H. Harrison (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67: 164.) [Specimen now destroyed. C.B.W.]

—. [1933, Sept. 2. Bude, N. Cornwall.

See under Sept. 12, which is correct date.]

84. 1933, Sept. 2. Lelant, Cornwall.

One male caught by Miss Briant (F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 67: 134). Now in collection of Sir B. Whitehouse of Birmingham.

85. 1933, Sept. 3. Salcey Forest, Northants.

One seen by R. D. Pendered (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67: 164).

86. 1933, Sept. 4-6. Howth Promontory, Dublin.

One seen by G. Hemphill (1933, Irish Nat.: 244; see also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

87. 1933, Sept. 5. Budleigh Salterton, Devon.

One caught by M. Wood (6.x.1933, Times; see also F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 66:250). Now in collection of Mrs. M. Wood of Westbury, Wilts.

88. 1933, Sept. 9. Penhale Pt., Cornwall.

One seen by D. O. Boyd (Entomologist 66: 234).

89. 1933, Sept. 10. Battle, Sussex.

One seen by Mrs. Arnold (28.vii.1934, Times; see T. Dannreuther, Entomologist **67** : 209).

90. 1933, Sept. 12. Bude, Cornwall.

One captured by B. J. Leader (Entomologist 66: 225), date given as Sept. 2 in original by mistake.

91. 1933, Sept. 18. Bexhill, Sussex.
One seen by K. Jackson (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

92. 1933, Sept. 19. Boreham Street, Sussex.

One seen by K. Jackson (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254), possibly the same individual as the previous record.

93. 1933, Sept. (20). Church Cove, Lizard, Cornwall.
One seen by P. H. Dean (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

94. 1933, Sept. 20. Lymington, Hants.

One seen by J. Nickell (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

95. 1933, Sept. 21. Tenby, Pembrokeshire,

One female caught by H. Mathias (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254). Now in National Collection at Tring. Typical N. American form.

96. 1933, Sept. 21. Bognor, Sussex.

One seen by R. J. Hodgson (4.x.1933, Times; see T. Dannreuther, Entomologist **66** : 254).

97. 1933, Sept. 26. Eastbourne, Sussex.

One female caught by a schoolboy (R. Adkin, Entomologist 66: 250).

98. 1933, Sept. 26. Little Common, Bexhill, Sussex.

One seen by H. G. McLeod (Entomologist 69: 42; see also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254). Seen from only a few feet away.

99. 1933, Sept. 26. Bexhill, Sussex.

One seen by W. A. Elder (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254). Possibly the same individual as the previous record.

100. 1933, Sept. 27. West Cove, near Cahirdaniel, Co. Kerry, Ireland.

One male caught by M. M. Green (S. Kemp, Entomologist 66: 241).

101. 1933, Sept. 27. Housel Bay, Lizard, Cornwall.

One seen by P. H. Dean (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

102. 1933, Sept. 29. Housel Bay, Lizard, Cornwall.

One seen by P. H. Dean (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254), possibly the same as the previous record.

103. 1933, Sept. 30. Mawnan Smith, Cornwall.

One seen by R. B. Goodden (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67: 209).

104. 1933, Oct. 1. St. Mawes, Cornwall.
One captured by W. C. May (14.x.1933, Western Morning News; C. Nicholson, Ent. Rec. 46: 20). Now in collection W. E. May.

105. 1933, Oct. 1. Exmouth, Devon.

One seen by S. D. Gibbard (3.x.1933, Western Morning News; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

106. 1933, Oct. 2. Hastings, Sussex.

One seen by A. M. Elliott (Entomologist 66: 279), inspected closely for several minutes and said to be a male as scent spots on hind-wing were noticed (Entomologist 67:11).

107. 1933, Oct. 12. Blagdon, Somerset.

One seen by G. S. Griggs (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 66: 254).

108. 1933, Oct. 15. Ruan Minor, Cornwall.

One seen by A. L. Crossman (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67: 12).

109. 1933, Oct. 29. Nr. St. Ives, Cornwall. One male captured by F. A. Turk.

110. (1933). Lanarth, St. Keverne, Cornwall.

One seen by Lady Seaton (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71:218).

111. 1934, July 15. Ringwold, Kent.

One seen by H. C. Gunton (1.viii.1934, Times; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 67: 213).

112 113. 1934, Aug., 2nd week. Off Beer Regis, Devon.

Two seen by Miss Mercer (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71: 220).

114. 1934, Aug. 25. Oxford. One seen by B. M. Hobby (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71:220). Large butterfly,

115. 1934, Aug. 29. Dudbridge, nr. Stroud, Gloucester.

One seen by Miss Wright (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71:217).

116. 1934, Sept. 19. Denham, Bucks.

One seen by G. B. Oliver (Entomologist 67: 248).

117. 1934, Sept. 20. Coombe Martin, Devon. One seen by Mrs. Miall (F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 67: 248).

identification not quite certain.

118. 1934, Sept. 25. Minehead, Somerset.

One caught by -- Bentley, Jr. (R. C. Bentley, Entomologist 67: 248). Now in collection of R. C. Bentley.

119. 1934, Sept. 27. Bideford, Devon.

One seen by W. M. Littlewood (3.x.1934, Times; see also F. W. Frohawk, Entomologist 67: 248). Said to be a female but not captured.

120. 1934, Sept. 27. Northiam, Sussex.

One female seen by A. Townsend (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 68: 136).

121. 1934, Oct. 2. Bolton Abbey, Yorks.

One caught by a farm boy (F. G. Britton, Entomologist 67: 248). Now in collection of F. G. Britton.

122. 1934, Oct. 5. Milford Haven, Pembroke.

One seen by A. V. W. Stokes (20.x.1934, Field 164: 930; also T. Dannreuther. Entomologist 68:8).

123. 1934, Oct. 11. Lymington, Hants.

One seen by P. E. G. Harding (20.x.1934, Field 164: 930; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 68:8).

124. 1934, Oct. 22. Dunster, Somerset.

One caught? by R. C. Bentley (Entomologist 67: 248). Now in collection of R. C. Bentley.

125. 1935, March 21. Brighton, Sussex.

One seen by J. Brazenor (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 68: 109).

126. 1935, April 21. Lulworth Cove, Dorset.

One seen by a lady (H. G. Harris, Entomologist 68: 136).

127. 1935, July 17. Ashley, New Milton, Hants.

One seen by L. F. Burt (W. P. Curtis, J. Soc. Brit. Ent. 1 (5): 121).

128. 1935, early Sept. Aberystwyth, Cardigan. Seen coming in from sea. Captured but escaped again. A. G. Walker (Williams, Entomologist 78 : 173).

129. 1935, Sept. 25. Coverack, Cornwall.

One seen by A. T. Cummings (F. Pennington, Entomologist 69:94).

130. 1935, Sept. —. Bourton-on-the-Water, Gloucester. One seen by Miss Donovan (C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71:217).

131. 1935. Oct. 4. South Huish, Devon.

One caught by Mr. Halahan and given to Mr. J. O. N. Wood (Wood, Entomologist 69:230). Now in collection of J. O. N. Wood.

132. 1935, Oct. 13. Penally, Pembroke. One caught by G. Scott-Brown (23.xi.1935, Field 166: 1242; see also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69:5).

133. 1936, Aug. 8. Sowley, Lymington, Hants.
One seen by Mr. Harding (22.viii.1936, Field 168: 464; see also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69: 226).

134. 1936, Aug. 11. Start Point, Devon.
One seen by A. W. Godfrey (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69: 226).

135. 1936, Aug. 18. Meonstoke, Petersfield, Hants.
One seen by Mr. Rawlins (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69: 259; and C. Nicholson, Entomologist 71: 221).

136. 1936, Aug. 22. Burley, Hants. One seen by F. H. Hargreaves (12.xi.1936, Field 168:630; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69: 226).

137. 1936, Aug. 25. West Meon, Hants.

One seen by G. B. Wood (12.ix.1936, Field 168: 620; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69: 226).

138. 1936, Sept. 4. Leanwater, Lizard, Cornwall. One seen by H. C. Griffith (18.ix.1936, Western Morning News; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 70:8).

139. 1936, Sept. 8. Oakhanger Pond, Selborne, Hants. One caught by I. P. Russell (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 70:8).

140. 1936, Sept. 16. Salcombe, Devon. One seen by Mrs. Besant (22.ix.1936, Western Morning News; also T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 69: 259).

141. 1937, Aug. 6. Rushmore Hall, Ipswich, Suffolk. One caught by Miss R. M. King (1937, Trans. Suffolk N.H. Soc. 11: 104).

142. 1937, Sept. 8. Selsey Bill, Sussex. One female caught by T. Trought (Entomologist 70: 285). Now in collection of T. Trought.

143. 1937, Sept. 28. Slapton, S. Devon. One seen by H. O. Mills (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 70; 253). Identification

not very certain.

144. 1937, Sept. 28. Stoke Fleming, Devon.

One seen by H. M. Churchward (T. Dannreuther, Entomologist 70: 253).

145. 1937, Oct. 2. Harrow, Middlesex. One seen by K. Clarke (E. W. Classey, Entomologist 70: 246).

146. 1937, Oct. 2. Lydney, Gloucester. One male caught by H. Angel (C. G. Clutterbuck, Entomologist 70:249). Now in Gloucester Museum.

147. 1938, Aug. 15. Porth Conger, St. Agnes, Scillies.

One seen by E. B. King (Entomologist 71: 236). 148. 1938, Aug. late. Fernhurst, Sussex.

One seen by Dr. B. Barnes (in litt.). 149. 1940, Nov. 4. Putsborough, N. Devon.

One female captured by W. R. C. Mathews and kept alive for two weeks (C. W. Bracken, Entomologist 74:42).

150. 1941, Aug. 30. Kynance, Lizard, S. Cornwall. One female captured 6.20 p.m. in perfect condition by E. B. Ford (Entomologist 74:220).

151. 1941, Sept. 14. Sandsting, W. Shetland. One captured by G. Johnston.

in fig. 23, from which it will be seen that the earliest peak years were 1876, 1885-6, 1896, and then a quite unusual series of captures from 1932-1937 with a peak of 38 records for 1933. Part of the numbers of this last peak must, however, be put down to the greatly increased interest taken in the problem of immigration.

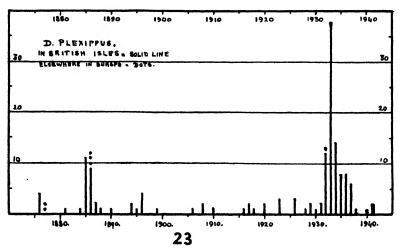


Fig. 23.—Diagram of the annual records of *D. plexippus* in the British Isles since 1876.

Fig. 24 shows the distribution throughout the year of the British records in half-monthly periods. Only three specimens (one each in March, April and May) have been recorded before the end of June: none of these were captured. After that there are records to the beginning of November with a very definite peak in the second half of September.

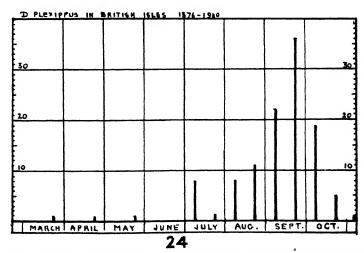


Fig. 24.—Records of *D. plexippus* in the British Isles arranged according to the date of observation.

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The proportion of sexes in the captures is as follows:—Males: 9 captured + 1 only seen; females: 18 captured + 2 only seen. The sex of the specimens which were only seen is of course open to doubt. Efforts have been made to trace and examine, or to have examined, as many as possible of the British-caught individuals. The results are shown in Table 19.

TABLE 19.

Present location and geographical race of specimens of D. plexippus captured in the British Isles.

(1) 1876, Sept. 6, at Neath. Now in British Museum, seen by C. B. Williams; typical N. American female.

(2) 1885, Sept. 17, Lizard. Now in Truro Museum, Devon (see below).

12-13 (3)-(4) 1885, Sept. 24, Housel Bay. Now in Truro Museum.

The three specimens above were examined in October 1940 by Mr. F. A. Turk, who reports that they are together in a case which states that all three were taken on 17th September, 1885. All three are females. Two are typical North American type and the third "definitely approaching the Central American form having the spots perfectly white and only two slight traces of the red brown areas in the black tip of the fore wing.'

(5) 1886, Aug. 14, Lyme Regis. Now in Hope Department, Oxford, seen by C. B. 18 Williams; typical N. American female, but faded and spots very pale.

22 (6) 1886, Sept., Glanafon. Said in 1914 to be in Nat. Museum of Wales at Cardiff, not possible to verify at present owing to collections being stored for protection.

(7) 1886, "Cornwall." Said in 1914 to be in "Vivien collection," Nat. Mus. Wales, 26

Cardiff (see no. 6). 42 (8) 1910, Oxford. Now in Hope Department, Oxford, seen by C. B. Williams; almost typical N. American male perhaps slightly less brown in outer portion of wing.

43 (9) 1916, Co. Cork. Now in collection of F. W. Frohawk, figured by Frohawk as

typical N. American female.

(10) 1917, Sept., Kirkheaton. In Huddersfield Museum. Examined in Sept. 1940 by Mr. W. Anbrook, who reports it to be a typical N. American male.
(11) 1923, Sept., Portslade. In Nat. Mus. Wales, Cardiff, seen by G. F. Cockbill;

typical N. American, spots buff.

- (12) 1926, Sept., Darlington. Now in Darlington Town Museum. Examined carefully 52by Mr. J. E. Nowers in March 1940, who reports it as a typical N. American
- (13) 1932, Sept. 26, New Milton. In 1939 in collection of Sir Beckwith Whitehouse. Examined by him in 1939 and reported to be a typical N. American female.

(14) 1932, Oct. 20, Portheurno. In 1939 in collection of Mr. A. J. Gardiner.
(15) 1933, Sept. 2, Lelant, Cornwall. In 1939 in collection of Sir Beckwith Whitehouse, who reports "typical N. American male."
(16) 1933, Sept. 5, Salterton. In collection of Mrs. M. Wood, The Garth, Westbury,

Wilts., who examined it in July 1940 and reports that it is a female somewhat intermediate between the N. and C. American forms. The spots are white with buff areas present. Possibly the spots are faded.

90 (17) 1933, Sept. 12. Bude, Cornwall. Now in collection of Mr. C. W. Whitworth-Hulse, who examined it in August 1941 and reports that it is a female of

the typical North American form, with buff spots on the fore-wing.

(18) 1933, Sept. 21, Tenby. Now at Tring. Seen in 1939 by C. B. Williams. Typical N. American female.

104 (19) 1933, Oct. 1, St. Mawes. Now in collection of W. C. May, Council School, St.

109 (20) 1933, Oct. 29, nr. St. Ives, Cornwall. In Sept. 1940 in collection of Mr. F. A. Turk, who reports that it is a typical N. American male. Since presented to National Collection at Tring.

118 (21) 1934, Sept. 25, Minehead. In 1939 in collection of R. C. Bentley, Minehead.

(22) 1934, Oct. 2, Bolton Abbey. In 1939 in collection of Rev. F. G. Britton, Springfield Manse, Addington, Ilkley, who examined it in July 1940 and reports "typical North American female."

TABLE 19 (Continued).

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(23) 1934, Oct. 22, Dunster. In 1939 in collection of R. C. Bentley, Minehead. (24) 1935, Oct. 4, South Huish, Devon. In 1939 in collection of J. O. N. Wood 131 In 1939 in collection of J. O. N. Wood, 144 Tulse Hill, London, S.W. 2.

(25) 1935, Oct. 13, Penally, Pembroke. Said to be in collection of Mr. A. N. Winnell, Lydstep House, Penally, but I cannot trace Mr. Winnell at this address.

(26) 1937, Sept. 8, Selsey. In 1939 in collection of T. Trought, who examined it and reports a female of typical N. American form.

(27) 1937, Oct. 2, Lydney, Glos. In Gloucester Museum. Examined in July 1940 by the curator Mr. C. Green, who reports it to be a typical N. American male.

(28) 1940, Nov. 2. Putsborough, N. Devon. In National Museum at Tring. Typical N. American female.

150 (29) 1941, Aug. 30, Kynance, Cornwall. In September 1941 in collection of E. B. Ford, who reports that it is a typical N. American female.

(30) 1941, Sept. 14. Shetland. Presented to R. Scottish Museum, Edinburgh. Examined by G. R. Waterston, who reports it to be a female of N. American

In addition to the above two further specimens have been followed up but are now known to have been destroyed. These are:-

1933, Sept., Hawthorndene, Durham.

1936, Sept., Selborne, Hants.

Thirty specimens have been located and of 22 examined all except one are of the typical North American type. The exception is one caught by A. H. Jenkin in 1885, and now in the Truro Museum, which is reported on examination by Mr. Turk to be definitely approaching the Central American form, having the spots perfectly white and only two slight traces of the redbrown areas in the black tip of the front wing.

Table 20 gives all the records traced of the appearance of D. plexippus in the Continent of Europe. Excluding the very doubtful records, they are :-2 in France, 4 in Spain and Portugal, and 1 in Holland. In addition there is the unique record of several specimens captured on a steamer outward bound from Glasgow, about 1880, when about 200-300 miles from the British shores. This record is the most definite piece of evidence in support of the idea that the insects fly across the Atlantic, but unfortunately there is no exact date and the specimens cannot now be traced.

TABLE 20.

D. plexippus captured or seen in the European area, excluding the British Isles.

[1842, Sept. Schloss Seehof, Bavaria.

A drawing of a Monarch butterfly was found with this date and locality (Forman, 1927, Entomologist 60: 103). It is very doubtful evidence.]
1877, Sept., early. La Vendée, W. France.

One captured early in September and a second seen about 8 days later by M. Grassal (Baret, Pet. Nouv. Ent. 2: 253-4).

1880 (about). Atlantic, Off N. Ireland.

Several specimens of the N. American type given to Mr. J. F. X. King by an officer of a steamer outward bound from Glasgow. Butterflies caught playing round rigging about 200-300 miles from British shores. (C. G. Barratt, 1893, Ent. mon. Mag. 29: 163). Enquiries were made in 1937, but no specimens could be found in J. F. X. King collection now at Glasgow University.

1886, Oct. The Hague, Holland.
One captured by J. E. Muschait (Snellen, 1887, Tijdsch. v. Ent. 30: c-ci). G. A. Bentinck (1937, Ent. Berich. 9: 258) says caught in a greenhouse. Specimen now lost. 1886, Oct. 29. Gibraltar.

One male of average size and N. American type captured by Lt. Comm. Cochran and seen by J. J. Walker two days later (Walker, 1886, Ent. mon. Mag. 23: 162).

1886, Sept. 29. Oporto, Portugal.

One female caught by G. D. Tait in his garden (H. Goss, 1887, Entomologist 20: 106). Some years before 1893. Off Cape St. Vincent, Portugal.

One caught at sea 60 miles from Cape St. Vincent, "some years ago." Then in coll. of

G. A. Harker (1893, Ent. mon. Mag. 29: 86).

1897, Nov. 8. Grecian Archipelago.

G. Mathew (1903, Ent. Rec. 15: 162) says that a D. plexippus "flapped slowly over the steamer." (I feel sure that this is a misidentification for D. chrysippus. C.B.W.)

1932, Oct. 2. Near Oporto, Portugal.

One captured by Mr. Stock and given to Mr. M. A. de Silva Cruz. Another said to have been seen about the same time a little to the north. (Letter to T. Dannreuther from J. T. Wattison, Dec. 16, 1935.)

It does not seem possible at present to reach a final decision as to whether the British records relate to individuals which have flown across or have been brought across in the holds of ships. It is quite possible that both explanations may be true. The subject has been discussed recently by Nicholson (1935 and 1938). He inclines to the idea that they have all been brought over in ships, but the record just quoted seems impossible to fit into this theory.

(2) Phoebis eubule L. (= Catopsilia sennae).

In 1938 I published a brief summary (Williams 1938b) of the information available relating to the migrations of this butterfly in the United States. Since then a number of new records have come in relating to this country, including the continuous observations made by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida already discussed on p. 151. There are also several records for Central America and the West Indies which have not yet been published.

Records relating to flights in the U.S.A.

Alabama. The eighteen years' observations by Mr. P. Smyth which were discussed in my last summary (Williams 1938b) have been also referred to very briefly by Mr. Smyth in a short note (Smyth 1938).

The regularity of movements in this State is confirmed by Mr. J. S. Mason, from Montgomery, who writes: "For many years since 1882 I have noticed the migration of yellow butterflies. In the autumn months they appear in numbers flying to the south-east. They fly in a leisurely manner." Mr. W. A. Ruffin has also observed flights "in a southerly direction."

Arkansas. Mr. A. M. Merrill of Rogers, Ark., writes that the butterflies congregate there in great numbers all at once and "As their wings are not worn I believe they migrate here and stop on their way south. It is almost impossible to find larvae here during the summer."

Mr. Easton saw a large flight to the east in September and October 1933 which is described more fully below under "Louisiana."

New Mexico. Mr. P. R. Gleason writes from Denning, N. Mexico, that the species is rare there but that he saw a few during July and August 1939, becoming more frequent in early September. One pair was seen mating on the 8th September but by the end of the month all had gone. In 1940 the first reappearance was on the 18th March, when two were seen flying steadily to the

Florida. In addition to the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges (see p. 151), Mr. W. F. Smith writes that the butterfly occurred commonly at Englewood during December 1937. Twenty were seen on the 30th December, but it became gradually rarer until only two were noted in the last two weeks of March.

Mr. T. K. Cooper states that, at Cape St. George Island, in the north-west of Florida, in 1937 only very few were seen before the end of October but that it

then became fairly numerous.

Georgia. Mr. P. M. Gilmer writes (November 1937), "The movement here [Tifton], while somewhat more southerly than in Louisiana, is still distinctly easterly. Tifton is 130 miles from the coast and 60 miles from the Florida line so the movement should be south rather than east if the insects were turning south into Florida. I believe, however, it is rather easterly than southerly even here, although close to S.E. A S.E. movement from here would strike the Atlantic coast only a few miles south of Jacksonville, which is only about 50 miles south of the border. I have only one observation near the coast, in late August 1937, when I saw two specimens flying S.E. disappear out to sea at Sea Island Beach, Brunswick, Ga. They were flying steadily 4–5 feet above the water. From this I am inclined to believe that the movement does not turn south but continues to the S.E. until the death of the insects either by drowning at sea or by natural causes inland." (See below for records of flights out at sea in the Bahama Islands.)

Mr. L. Harris writes that in September 1926, at Decatur and Atlanta, Georgia (both well inland), he saw a movement to the S.E. for several days. Not more than one or two were in sight at one time, usually 2-6 feet from the ground, rising over obstacles and immediately descending to the ground again.

Iowa. Mr. C. W. Thorwald sent three specimens from Chariton, Iowa, in October 1937, with the information that they had appeared within the past three months but were not common in Iowa.

Louisiana. Mr. H. D. Easton writes that in September and October 1933 he observed a very distinct migration of *P. eubule* flying to the East or E.S.E. in Louisiana and Arkansas. The migration was most dense from 15th September to 15th October and then thinner. It was observed from Noel, just over the border from Arkansas into Missouri, to Alexandria and De Ridder in Southern Louisiana, over a front of approximately 400 miles. He estimates the number of butterflies in the flight as "billions."

Again in the autumn of 1937 Mr. Easton noted a very much thinner flight

in exactly the same direction over a large part of the State of Louisiana.

Mr. P. Glick writes that he saw movements of *P. eubule* to the east in the autumn almost every year that he was at Tallulah, La. The flights lasted for about three weeks and the insects flew all day singly rather than in groups.

Mr. P. M. Gillmer, who also lived at Tallulah, La., says that the flights often reached a density of one insect per 100 feet. They flew individually near the ground, rarely higher than 3-6 feet. In crossing a depression at Tallulah about 30 feet deep and 50-100 yards wide they went down to the bottom and not straight across. The general direction was a little E. of S.E.

Mississippi. Mr. R. S. Smith reports, in continuation of records already published (Williams 1938b), that in 1937 the flight to the east at Biloxi Bay was first distinct on 4th July, and not 1st July as previously stated. The air

was filled with butterflies.

In 1938 the flight started about 14th August and was almost at its end on 13th October. It was in the usual direction and of normal numbers.

Mr. C. Lyle reports that about 1923 at the end of October or beginning of November he saw large numbers of *P. eubule* flying to the east at Bay St. Louis, Miss.

Missouri. Shannon (1935, map p. 157) indicates an annual flight to the south at Independence, near Kansas City, Missouri.

North Carolina. Mr. R. M. Dayton reports that he saw a definite movement of *P. eubule* to the south at Carolina Beach, near Wilmington, North Carolina, at the beginning of October 1935. The weather was hot, many days about 90° F. "While the Monarchs drifted round and stopped here and there, the 'Cloudless Sulphurs' went right through, flying strong and fresh usually about 10 feet up." They were very difficult to catch but he managed to get two. Usually two or three were always visible at one time. The flight lasted through October to the beginning of November.

Tennessee. Mr. C. McR. Plummer has made observations on the movements of P. eubule in the neighbourhood of Bolivar, Tenn., in three successive years.

In September 1937 he noted, while driving between Bolivar and Nashville,

several individuals all going to the S.E. which was "the usual direction."

In 1938 the flight was observed from August 18th until the end of the month and continued in September. In August about 40 per hour were seen, all flying to the S.E. about six feet above the ground or any obstacle in their path. He writes, "On one occasion we noticed a butterfly stray from the path of its predecessors and go into the woods, but it came out again a few hundred feet farther on and resumed flight along the regular path. We were amazed when the next butterfly exactly duplicated this performance though it was not in sight of the former. The next one which came along, however, resumed the direct path of the normal migration."

Mr. Plummer also writes, "I have noticed that when we have a cold snap, the numbers of the insects are almost doubled. The Sulphurs are flying today (24th September 1938) at about 70 per hour which is compared with the 40 per hour of the warm August days. Today is not frosty, but cool enough for a jacket." And again, "The wind seems to have no effect on the numbers, and little effect on the speed of the flight. When the wind is favourable, i.e., tail-wind, the insects seem to fly with less deviation and less 'fluttering,' but my pure guesswork doesn't indicate that they move much faster than when the wind is across or opposite to the direction of flight."

In 1939 Mr. Plummer reported that the flight began very early and before the end of June a few individuals had been seen moving fast to the E.N.E.

Texas. Mr. B. Struck writes that he has noticed a southerly movement of this species, together with P. agarithe, in the fall in the district round San

Antonio Bay and Corpus Christi, Texas.

Mr. R. J. Watson observed a flight from 8th to 10th August 1941 in Rusk County, E. Texas, flying about 4 miles per hour about 6 feet above the ground. The width of the territory observed was about 24 miles. About 500 per hour were passing within sight between 11 a.m. and noon. The wind was very light from S.W. Temperature 95° F. Flight from west to east.

America (outside U.S.A.).

Mexico. Dr. C. W. Sabrosky informs me that on 3rd August 1933 he saw numbers of P. eubule flying to the south at Guerrerio, State of San Luiz Potosi, Mexico, about 60 miles west of Tampico.

Guatemala. According to Mr. A. F. Novella, this species emigrates southward from Mexico into Guatemala in August, arriving about the middle of

the month.

Mr. M. Y. Fuentes reports a large flight, 800 metres wide, 4 kilometres long and 2-12 metres above the ground, in the first week in August 1938 at Ocos, Guatemala towards the S.E. This locality is on the Pacific coast near the Mexican border.

Panama. Miss C. Longfield has recorded (Poulton 1932a) a flight of this species at Colon, Panama, on 9th June 1924, when hundreds were flying to the S.W.

Jamaica and at sea south of Jamaica. Dr. E. Murray-Aaron informs me that in the autumn of 1889 he saw a flight of scattered groups of this butterfly going almost directly south at about 6000 feet elevation in the Upper Garden, Blue Mountains, Jamaica. A few days later Captain Morris of S.S. Ailsa reported

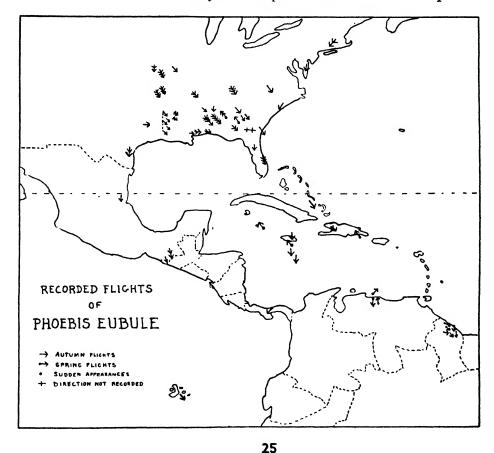


Fig. 25.—Recorded flights of *Phoebis cubule* in North and South America and the West Indies.

that he had seen them for at least two days "well over" the Caribbean Sea and heading towards Venezuela.

Haiti. Mrs. B. C. Scott informs me that in June 1920 there was a flight for at least one hour towards the S.E. near Port au Prince, Haiti; and on several subsequent occasions she has seen similar flights in the same direction. The butterflies are locally known as "Papillon St. Jean" and their wanderings have become the subject of a native song (see p. 104).

Caribbean Sea. Dr. E. Murray-Aaron sends me the two following accounts of flights of C. cubulc in the Caribbean Sea. It is curious that there are no more recent records.

- (a) In 1891 Mr. F. Herzog, an entomologist from Frankfort-on-Main, returning from Panama, showed him specimens of *C. eubule* which were part of large numbers seen flying to the south over the sea about 100 miles south of Jamaica. Some of them had settled on the ship's deck. The captain of the steamer had told Mr. Herzog that this was a common thing "about hurricane time." This is about mid-August to mid-October in these waters.
- (b) Dr. Aaron gives in a boys' story-book a popular account (Murray-Aaron 1894) of a flight of *C. eubule* over the sea in the neighbourhood of the Bahamas. He tells me that this account is substantially correct. The flight was observed on 12th or 13th October 1889, moving towards the south-east at the north end of Fortune Island Passage in the Bahamas off the east shore of Rum Cay. Many hundreds of butterflies were in sight at one time flying in parallel columns. They were seen at daybreak and had been noted passing over Watlings Island on the previous day.

The map (fig. 25) shows all the known information on the distribution of the flights of P. eubule. By far the most striking feature is the south-easterly movement in the autumn in the south-eastern part of the U.S.A., which seems to extend to some of the Northern West Indian Islands and possibly over the Caribbean Sea.

There are north-westerly flights in the spring recorded in Haiti, Jamaica, the Cayman Islands and in Alabama.

The most important records that do not fit into the scheme are the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida (see p. 151), who noted southerly flights throughout the whole year.

(3) Eunica monima (Cramer).

In my summary (Williams 1930b) only one record of the migration of this species was available in which it was said to be taking part in a mixed flight towards the south with A. macrula and C. sennae (eubule) near Caracas, Venezuela, on 25th-26th June 1926 (Box 1930).

Since then Mr. D. B. Legters, of Yucatan, Mexico, has sent me particulars of two large flights. The locality was the village of Xocemplich in the East

Central portion of the Yucatan Peninsula in S.E. Mexico.

The first migration started on 20th May 1939 and the insects were flying from S.E. to N.W., the majority just over the tops of the trees, though some possibly 100 feet or more in the air. Fully 100 passed over one square yard per minute. The following day the flight shifted to the west and continued for a week in this direction, every day from about noon till dark. "No matter which direction the wind there was always a definite heading into the west." The flight was suddenly brought to an end by heavy rain on the 30th May (Williams 1939e).

In 1940 the flight was again observed on 22nd June. "Heavy migration heading due south, continued all afternoon, sweeping over and through the tree tops." On 30th June "the heaviest migration of all; the sky is a solid mass of moving pin points, the majority flying high about 100 feet above ground." The flights were, as in the previous year, towards the south and the speed of flight about 4-5 m.p.h.

On the 22nd June, the day of the thinner flight, Mr. Legters took a photograph of the flight with the camera pointing towards the sky. This is reproduced on plate 3. According to his description, the photograph covers an area of

about 80 square feet at 30 feet high. It was taken with 1/200 second exposure at F/11. On the original print which was sent about 475 insects can be seen. One can scarcely identify the species of butterfly from it, but it may help to give some idea of the density of the flight to those who have had no opportunity to see such an occurrence.

(4) Pieris brassicae.

The Large Cabbage White Butterfly is a regular migrant in Europe. In 1930 I dealt with it in my book (Williams 1930b) and in 1939 I gave a summary of the available information with particular reference to its movements on the continent of Europe up to 1937. In the latter a full list of recent flight records on the continent was given, but the records for Great Britain were only briefly referred to. A very early record for the year 1508 is discussed on p. 103.

The following are a few records up to 1937 omitted from these summaries.

Between 1850 and 1860. Geldebee, nr. Prensburg. To S.

Swarm about a mile broad passing for several days. Schmidt (Sajo 1897, p. 261).

1882, July 18. Nr. Leighton Buzzard, England.

Road between Leighton Buzzard and Gt. Gaddesden blocked by great swarm of butterflies. Proctor (Littleboy 1892).

1885, end July or beginning Aug. Off S.W. coast Sweden. To S.

Two miles off Trelleborg and Falsterbo, air filled with butterflies. Several seen to alight and rise from water (Alsen 1891). 1891, end July. Sweden.

Mass flight, but locality and direction not given (Wahlgren 1912).

1913, Aug. 15. Loch Dan, Wicklow, Ireland. To S.

Mass of butterflies went off suddenly to S. in late afternoon. Evans (Williams 1936a).

1925, Aug. 28. Verona and Mantua, Italy.

Clouds of white butterflies suddenly appeared, filled streets, business at a standstill; all gone after four hours. Newspaper report (Butterfield 1925). 1931, July 28. Weimar, Thuringia, Germany. To S.

Great swarm passing at level of house tops. Janblitzen (Seitz 1931).

1931, July 29. Hochtor Pass: Heiligenblut, S. Austria. To S.

Constant stream of both sexes drifting over snow with north wind. Up to 10 per minute in sight; 20-30 feet in air (Welch 1933).

1932, July 25. Faeborg, Faen Is., Denmark. To S.

Several hundreds visible 1-5 metres over water for two hours. Sunny, no wind. C. Stapel (mss.).

1932, July 30. Middelkerke, Belgium. To S.W.

Big flight (Severin 1932).

Migrations on the continent of Europe 1937–1939.

In 1937 there were extensive migrations, often accompanied by Pieris rapae and rarely P. napi, in Central Europe. Nineteen references to such flights have already been published (Williams 1939a). Since then the following additional ones have been traced.

1937, May. Schleswig-Holstein. To S. and S.W.

Large swarm near Flensburg and Kreis-Sudtondern (Warnecke 1937).

1937, July. Langenbielau, Silesia. To E.

Migrating for a week quickly and without stopping; mostly 2-3 metres from the ground. Seen also at Snadenfrei in Silesia. Possibly results of unusual heat (30-35° C.) in May (Specht 1937).

1937, July 8. Waldenburger Bergland, Saxony. To W.

Great thick swarm, 10 kilometres broad seen from Fellhammer to Friedland (Hentschel 1937).

1937, July 10. Usedom Is., Baltic coast, Germany. To S.E.

Hatch out of 2nd generation adults at beginning of July. Common everywhere: on 10th great masses started to move to S.E. Urbahn (Wenzel 1937).

1937. July 15. Kefermarkt, Upper Austria. To S.

Hundreds of thousands, fields white. Continued on following days but not so thick (Foltin 1938).

1937, July 15. Schwarzbrunnkopfe, Gablonz, Bohemia.

Masses seen, 875 m. above sea-level. R. Wünsch (Wenzel 1937).

1937, mid-July. Fehmarn, Schleswig-Holstein. To N.

Flight about 4 kilometres long (Warnecke 1937).

1937, mid-July. Kiel.

Very abundant for about a week (Warnecke 1937).

1937, mid-July. Schleswig-Holstein. To S.W.

Great flight 300 metres broad seen near Pelzerhaken in East Holstein, across Neustadter Bay (Warnecke 1937).

1937, July 21. Between Hamburg and Kiel. To W.

Numbers all the way, always 10-15 in sight, apparently mostly females (Warnecke 1937).

1937, July 21. Mardorf, Hanover. To W., S.W., and S.

Flying all afternoon, chief flight 2.30-4.30, when 250-300 passed per minute on 30 metre front. Majority flying over margin of Lake Steinhuder in belt about 70 metres broad. Cloudless, temperature 24-28° C. Calm at first, then about 5 p.m. light W. wind but no change in direction of butterflies (Barth 1938).

1937, July 23. Vöcklabruch, Upper Austria. To S.

Flight seen (Foltin 1938).

1937, July 31. Keller See, nr. Eutin, Oldenburg. To S.

Flight seen on east bank by H. Sick (Wenzel 1937).

1937, Aug. 1. Between Ponitz and Ahrenstock, Oldenburg. T Seen by H. Sick in "Middle-Kreis, Eutin" (Wenzel 1937).

1937, beginning August. Reichenau Is., Lake Constance.

Flew one after the other in great numbers; direction not stated. Rethingen (Wenzel

1937, Aug. 4. The Brocken, Germany. To S.

Flying in groups of 3-8 about 6-10 metres from the ground. Three times as many females as males; about 850 metres above sea-level. Wind very light N. Temperature about 20° C. (Wenzel 1937).

1937, Aug. ?4. Kemtauer, Chemnitz. To S.

All three Pierids flying round; then suddenly, about 3 p.m., went off to south for about 20 minutes; then heavy rain. Ground level up to 10 metres, both sexes equally common. Friedemann (Wenzel 1937).

1937, —. Gratz, S.E. Austria. To W.

Commoner than at any time for ten years. Kraut (Wenzel 1937).

1937, —. Switzerland.

Great damage by caterpillars at Mürren and near Lake Constance (Wenzel 1937).

1937, -.. Schilthorn, Switzerland.

A swarm like a snowstorm seen at height of 2600 metres. Hopf (Wenzel 1937).

1937, —. Bad Freienwalde a. Oder, Brandenburg. To S.

Flight reported by Haase (Wenzel 1937).

1937, —. Stuttgart. To S.

Swarm observed by A. Koelsch (Wenzel 1937).

1937, -.. Jungbuch, Bohemia. To S.W.

Flight reported by Haase (Wenzel 1937).

In 1938 there were no extensive migrations recorded in Central Europe but one record of unusual interest from Sweden which extends the known migration area considerably farther north.

1938, June 20. Straits of Messina. ? To N.N.W.

Thin migration 10.30 a.m. to 1 p.m. Two captured: almost calm. Robertson (Williams

1938, Aug. 21. Southern Sweden. To S.

On 320-mile railway journey from Trölleborg to Stockholm large numbers seen; up to 23 visible at one moment; both P. brassicae and P. rapae. Hodson (Williams 1939a).

In 1939 there was a very extensive invasion in England in August (see p. 193) but only a few records on the Continent and none is available from Central Europe.

1939, July 29. Dieppe, France.
Flight "literally like snow" right up to above the houses, weather fine and clear, wind offshore. Flight seen from train, so direction uncertain. Andrews (mss.).

1939, Aug. 2. Elsinore, Denmark. To S.W.
Mass migration seen "like a snowstorm." "No abnormal numbers at Copenhagen side of ferry 20 miles from Elsinore." J. Smith (mss.).

TABLE 21.

Records	of directional flights of P . b	rassicae in	the British Isles,	1931–1938.
1931, June 4 1931, mid-June	Sark, Channel Is. E. Dudgeon Light-Vessel, off Norfolk	W. W.	Droves 30 per hour	Newman 1931 Sharman
1931, 1st week	Broadstairs, Kent	-	Great numbers	Newman 1932
Aug. 1932, July 3	E. Dudgeon Light-Vessel, off Norfolk	W. and W.S.W.	Thin flight	Sharman
1932, Aug. 2	Hove, Sussex	N.	Swarms	V. E. August
1932, Aug. 8 1932, Aug. 8–19	Eastbourne, Sussex Harpenden, Herts	N.W. W.	Many Thin movement	R. Adkin C. B. Williams (1933a)
1932, Aug. 11 1932, Aug. 14	Eastbourne, Sussex Dunwich, Suffolk	w	Town invaded Large number	Chartres M. B. Ellis (Williams 1933a)
1933, May 12	Broadstairs, Kent	W.	Many	Frohawk
1933, May 21- June 6	Alston, Cumberland	N.	Large numbers	Bolam 1933
1933, May 21-22	Reading, Berks	N.	Small numbers	Hodson
1933, May 21 and 22	Catcleugh, Northumber- land	W.	A flight	Craigs
1933, May 22	Droitwich, Worcester	N.	Thin flight	A. B. Williams
1933, June 2	Between Dover and Ostend	N.W.	Hundreds	Gilbert
19 33, June 3 -5	Scolt Head, Norfolk	W. and S.W.	Considerable im- migration	(Turner, Ent. Rec. 45: 127)
1933, June 3-6	Jack Sound, Skomer Is., Pembroke	W.	Thin stream	Lockley
1933, July 20	East Coast, Norfolk	W. and S.W.	Large numbers	Ellis
1933, July 23-30	Nr. Gorleston, Norfolk	W. and S.W.	Hundreds	(Entomologist 66: 210)
1933, July end	Harpenden, Herts	w.	Small numbers	C. B. Williams
1933, Aug. 2	Outer Dowsing Light- Vessel, off Lincoln	Ε.	20	J. W. Reeve
1933, Aug. 2	E. Dudgeon Light-Vessel, off Norfolk	S.S.E.	Swarm	J. Audley
1933, Aug. 4	Gorleston, Norfolk	N.	Many	E. A. Ellis
1933, Aug. 5	Barrow on Soar, Leicester	W.	Hundreds	C. J. Tatham
1933, Oct. 1	E. Dudgeon Light-Vessel, off Norfolk	Е.	Nine	Fuller
1934, July 26	Start Point, Devon	N.	Dozens	A. W. Godfrey
1935, June 9	Scolt Head, Norfolk	S.W. N.	Dozens Dozens	L. A. Ellis A. W. Godfrey
1935, Aug. 5	Start Point, Devon Lizard, Cornwall	N.W.	Hundreds	B. A. Cooper
1936, Aug. 7 1936, Aug. 17–29	At sea, off Maplethorpe, Lines	w.	Hundreds	W. R. Withers
1936, Aug. 23	At sea, off Bexhill, Sussex	S.	Dozens	H. G. MacLeod
1936, Aug. 25-26	Harpenden, Herts	S.E.	Dozens	K. Grant
1937, May 24-30	Harpenden, and St. Albans, Herts	N.	Hundreds	K. Grant (1938)
1937, May 24-27	N. Foreland Lighthouse, Kent	W. and W.N.W.	Dozens	H. W. Bowling
1937, May 24	Norwich, Norfolk	N.	Large numbers	E. A. Ellis
1937, May 24 and 25	Blakeney Pt., Norfolk	S.E.	Like a snow- storm	W. Eales
1937, May 27	St. Nicholas Light-Vessel, off Norfolk	w.	A hundred or more	S. G. Sharman
1007 36 90	Carlanton Manfalla	3.87	Many hundrada	M P Pillo

W.

Many hundreds

M. B. Ellis

Gorleston, Norfolk

1937, May 30

1937, May 30	N.W. Norfolk	w.	Large numbers	S. H. Long
1937, June 5-9	Blakeney Pt., Norfolk	S.E.	Thousands	W. Eales
1937, June 6	Nr. Scolt Island, Norfolk	s.w.	Thousands	R. True (3.vii.37, Field)
1937, June 6	Burnham-over-Staithe, Norfolk	s.w.	Millions	D. Carruthers
1937, June 6	Sheringham, Norfolk	? S.	Thousands	B. C. Perowne
1937, July 1	Bamburgh Castle, North- umberland	S. and W	Hundreds	W. Wannop
1937, July 28	Owers Light-Vessel, Sus-	S.W. and W.N.W.	Hundreds	W. F. Willgreas
1937, July 29	Harpenden, Herts	WS.W.	Thin flight	C. B. Williams
1937, July 29	Dover, Kent	N.	Hundreds	B. Embry
1937, July 31- Aug. 7	At sea between Isle of Wight and Chichester	N.W.	Hundreds	C. J. P. Čave
1937, Aug. 1-7	Nr. Hastings, Sussex	N.N.W.	Several hundred	H. Eves
1937, Aug. 3	Nr. Porchester, Hants	S.	Many	A. W. Cother
1937, Aug. 4	Beachy Head, Sussex	N.	About 50	H. C. Gunton
1937, Aug. 14-27	Barmouth, Merioneth	S.	Thin movement	C. B. Williams
1937, Oct. 3	Tynemouth, Northumber- land	W.	20-30 from sea	G. L. Drury
1938, May 18-22	Brighton, Sussex	N. and N.E.	Hundreds	H. Blackiston
1938, Sept. 25	Dolgelly, Merioneth	S.	Small numbers	G. van Zuylen

Records in England 1931-1940.

Table 21 gives the records of directional flights observed in England in 1931–1938. Most of them have already been discussed in Williams 1939a. They are summarised in fig. 30. It will be seen that the flights were most extensive in 1933 and 1937, with relatively few in the intervening years. In 1937 there

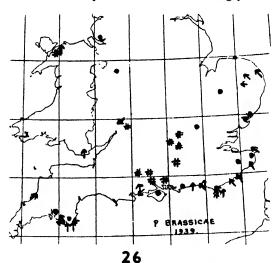


Fig. 26.—Recorded flights, and unusual abundance of adults (dot), and larvae (cross hatch) of *Pieris brassicae* in England in 1939.

were (see above) many flights observed on the Continent, but in 1933 only very few.

In 1939 there is little doubt that an extensive immigration occurred, particularly along the south coast. The records are shown in Table 22 and the map (fig. 26), which also shows several reports of unusual abundance and damage by larvae which are not listed in the table.

TABLE 22.

Records of directional flights of P. brassicae in the British Isles in 1939.

1939, July 11	Royal Sovereign Light- Vessel, Sussex	N.	A few	W. F. Willgress
1939, July 27	Eastbourne, Sussex	N.	Dozens	G. J. T. Jose
1939, July 27		w.	Very common	T. C. Abell
1939, July 27	Start Point, S. Devon			
	Beachy Head, Sussex	N.	Hundreds	H. G. Adkin
1939, July 28	Bournemouth, Hants	s.w.	Scores	F. C. Fraser
1939, July 29- Aug. 2	North Foreland, Kent	N.W.	Very common	J. W. Bowling
1939, Aug. 1-6	Mid-Norfolk	W.	Large numbers	E. A. Ellis
1939, Aug. 4-8	Eastbourne, Sussex	N.	A thousand	H. G. MacLeod
1939, Aug. 5	Dungeness, Kent	From sea	Hundreds	E. M. Cawkell
1939, Aug. 4-29	Brighton district, Sussex	N. and	Thousands	H. Blackiston
,	and an amount of Massey.	N.W.	Inoubblida	II. Diacaiscon
1939, Aug. 5	Start Point, Devon	N.	Great number	R. L. Sheppard
	D1:11 C	3.7	77 1 1	TY T CI
1939, Aug. 6	Bexhill, Sussex	N.	Hundreds	H. J. Sargent
1939, Aug. 7-17	Bangor, Carnarvon	N.	General move- ment	Jacob
1939, Aug. 8	Hastings, Sussex	N.W.	Hundreds	D. Brightmore
1939, Aug. 8	Alnmouth, Northumber-		Suddenly appeared	F. C. Garrett
1939, Aug. 13	Start Point, Devon	N.	Very common	C. H. R. Edwards
1939, Aug. 10-13	Stoke Bay, S. Devon	W. and	Hundreds	C. B. Williams
	•	N.W.		
1939, Aug. 13	Salcombe, S. Devon	N.	Very common	Rodick
1939, Aug. 14	Inistrahull Lighthouse, N. Donegal	N.E.	Very common	D. J. Sullivan
1939, Aug. 19	Barry, Glamorgan	N.N.E.	Hundreds	L. R. White
1939, Aug. 20	Inistrahull Lighthouse.	N.W.	Large numbers	D. J. Sullivan
and 24	N. Donegal		o .	
1939, Aug. 25	Bournemouth, Hants	N.	Hundreds	F. C. Fraser
1939, Aug. 27	Cheltenham, Glos.	s.w.	Over a thousand	F. B. Welch

The main flight started about the 27th July and was at its height in the first half of August. My own observations were made on the South Devon coast at Stoke, where there was a thin flight towards the west for over a week with a peak about the 10th-13th August.

The record of numbers flying towards the north-east at the Inistrahull Lighthouse off the north coast of Ireland is not marked on the map, but is of considerable interest in being the first record of migration from this part of the country. There were also reports of unusual abundance in Perthshire and in Northumberland.

In 1940 there occurred one of the most extensive outbreaks of *Pieris brassicae*, together with smaller numbers of *P. rapae* and *P. napi*, that had been observed for many years in the British Isles. There is little doubt that it was connected with the extensive immigration in 1939, and may have been in part at least the results of a general absence of parasites in the autumn of that year.

It is worthy of note that the winter of 1939-1940 was one of the most severe experienced for many years with minimum temperatures frequently below 10° F. and the ground in many parts frozen or snowbound for from four to six weeks.

The spring started with records of unusual numbers of white butterflies in many parts of the country, including Kent, North Wales, Buckinghamshire and Gloucester, but only three directional flights were recorded, all in the north, as follows:—

1940, May 18. Morecambe, Lancs. Approximately to S.E.

Procession of butterflies coming in from the sea down the old pier; flying against a moderate land breeze at 3 p.m. All keeping the same course down one side of the pier. Flying in twos and threes, many hundreds passed in 45 minutes' observation. Sea very calm but hazy sky. H. W. Slater.

1940, May 21. Hilbre Is., Cheshire. To E.N.E.

Thousands passing in late afternoon and early evening in calm weather. Flying across the mouth of the River Dee from the Welsh coast; not settling; a hundred every few minutes. H. Blackler (1940).

1940, May 26. Catcleugh, Northumberland. To S.W.

Definite migration seen over eight miles of Hawick Road between Catcleugh and Carters Bar. R. Craigs.

During June and July there were numerous reports of damage by caterpillars to various cruciferous crops, including severe damage to swedes in North Wales and North-east England. In the former area J. Thomas reported that several fields were so damaged that they had to be ploughed up. In the latter area R. A. Harper-Gray reported the worst damage since 1925.

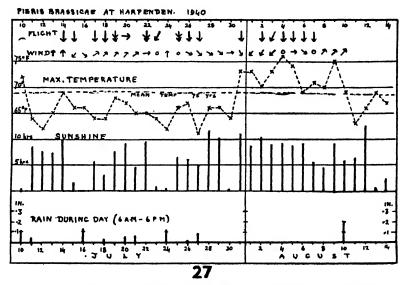


Fig. 27.—Summary of observations on a flight of P. brassicae at Harpenden in July and August 1940.

The second generation of butterflies began to hatch out about the second week in July, and the first movement was reported at Harpenden on Sunday 14th July. On this date Dr. Henderson-Smith observed a considerable movement of white butterflies to the south over the golf links at mid-day. Forty and fifty were in sight at once and many hundreds passed. The flight was sufficiently obvious to attract the attention of the general public. On the same day C. G. Butler reported them moving to the south in very large numbers for several miles between Royston and Cambridge. This is about 25-30 miles north-east of Harpenden. Thousands were seen and many were dead along the roadside killed by passing traffic. Four of these brought back were 2 males and 2 females of P. brassicae. Counts of the numbers crossing the main road within view in five successive minutes gave 76, 121, 102, 85 and 97 respectively.

Movements were also reported on this day from Norfolk, Monmouth and Sussex.

Observations at Harpenden.

From this date until the movement ceased a regular watch was kept at Harpenden, and observations and counts were made at frequent intervals on

TABLE 23.

Observations on migrating P. brassicae at Harpenden in July and August 1940.

For description of localities A, B and C see text.

Date	Time:	Loc.	Min.	Fliq	ght	Number to S. per 5 min.	Group	
	G.M.T.	200.	141111	s.	N.	per 100 yd.	density	
July 15	1.07	A	20	16	5	4	1	
	1.27	A	20	11	2	3	1	
July 17	1.15	A	20	55	5	12	2	
	3.00	A	10	11	2	5	1	
	3.15	В	10	59	14	30	1 2 1	
July 18	3.10	В	10	17	9	9	1	
July 19	8.55	В	25	77	18	16	2	
	11.25	В	5	118	18	130	3	
	11.30	В	5	89	5	98	3	
	1.27	В	10	36	8	20	2	
	2.10	В	5	49	2	55	3	
	3.36	В	5	8	3	9	1	
July 22	9.12	В	5	43	1	48	2	
-	9.18	A	5	22	1	20	2	
	9.23	A	5	62	1	56	233231223333322222222222221	
	9.27	В	5	152	2	167	3	
	11.10	C	5	189	4	170	3	
	2.30	В	5	48	4	52	3	
	2.35	A	5	28	1	25	2	
July 25	10.55	A	5	27	4	24	2	
,	11.00	В	5	44	8	48	2	
	11.15	A	5	25	4	23	2	
	11.20	В	5	47	5	51	3	
July 26	11.35	В	5	35	6	39	2	
July 27	11.10	В	5	20	1	22	2	
•	1.30	В	5	15	5	17	2	
Aug. 2	1.25	A	5	22	5	20	2	
-	1.30	В	5	18	2	20	2	
	5.30	A	5	17	2	15	2	
Aug. 4	1.45	В	10	31	9	17	2	
Aug. 5	1.55	В	10	51	21	27	2	
_	2.05	A	10	13	4	6	1	
Aug. 6	11.40	В	10	55	15	30	2	
-	1.35	В	10	34	18	19	2 2 2 2 2	
Aug. 7	10.00	В	5	23	3	25	2	
-	10.05	В	5	14	12	15	2	
	1.55	В	5	23	15	25	2	
	2.00	В	5	23	14	25	2	
Total to dat	te .		300	1628	258			
Aug. 9	10.25	В	5	24	24	No evidence ment.	of move-	
	10.30	В	5	19	27	First observat more to N.	ions with	
_ 1	4.21	В	5	1	5			
Aug. 12	10.00	В	10	29	14	1		

each fine day. A summary of the weather conditions during the flight will be found in fig. 27 and a summary of the observations on flight directions in Table 23.

Observations were made chiefly at two points. The first was (Table 23A and fig. 28) on an open cricket ground on Harpenden Common just in front of the Rothamsted Laboratories. The area observed was about 120 yards square. On this field the compass direction (8 points) of each individual was noted.

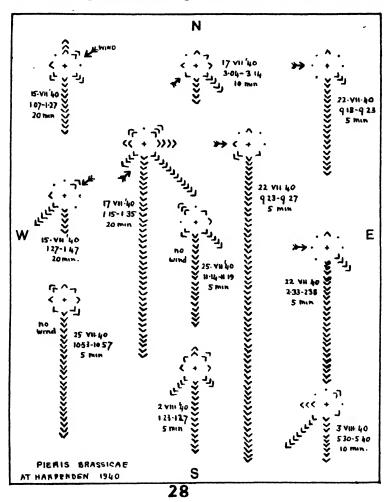


Fig. 28.—Observations on compass direction of flights of *P. brassicae* at Harpenden in July and August 1940.

The second (Table 23B) was a strip of common land between the main road and the Laboratories. In this the butterflies were divided into two groups only, those crossing an east-west line of about 90 yards length going to the south, and those going to the north. One set of observations was made on Rothamsted Farm (Table 23C) in an open field across a front of about 120 yards.

In Table 23 there is given in addition to the exact numbers observed a corrected figure for the numbers which would have been observed if the front had been 100 yards and the period of observation five minutes. These are thus

comparable for the different localities and different days.

From fig. 27 it will be seen that the first observation was on the 14th July and that the butterflies were passing to the south on almost every fine day until the 7th August, a total of 25 days. The flight started during a period with maximum temperature well below the July average for the locality, which is 69.4° F. The cold spell lasted till the 30th July and then there were 10 days with temperatures well above the average and 8°-10° F. hotter than the previous fortnight. The flight continued steadily during the greater part of this second period, indicating little or no effect of the increased temperatures. The hot spell in August was distinctly sunnier than the cool July, and no rain fell'from the 27th July till the 10th August just after the flight had ceased.

The wind, which was from the south on the first day, changed to the northeast on the second, and then changed so frequently that it blew from all quarters except south-east without in any way affecting the direction of the flight. The only noticeable effect was that when it was strong a few butterflies seemed to be carried away with it against their inclination and unusually high in the air.

The standard numbers per 100 yards per 5 minutes shown in Table 23 varied from 3 to 170 and, according to the classification suggested on page 260, included groups I, II and III. Group III, which should be obvious to any field-naturalist, occurred on three days—the 19th, 22nd and 25th of July—and probably also on the 14th, but no exact counts were made on this day.

From the 15th July to the 22nd August continued observations were made for a total of 300 minutes and in that period 1627 insects were counted passing to the south and 256 to the north of an east—west line. If one ends the period at the 4th August the preponderance is considerably greater at 1391—154.

On the 9th August the first observation was obtained since the start of the flight in which the numbers passing to the north were equal to, or greater than,

those going south.

Fig. 28 shows the observations made in the open cricket field on Harpenden Common, when the exact compass direction of each individual was recorded. Each arrowhead represents a single butterfly and the overwhelming preponderance of movement almost due south is easily seen. The second commonest direction is south-east or south-west, varying on different days, possibly owing to slight influence of cross winds.

A number of specimens were captured and were nearly all *P. brassicae* in good condition, with a few *P. rapae* and still fewer *P. napi*. For example, on 19th July the captures were:—

				Males	Females
P. brassicae				10	18
P. rapae P. napi			.	3	3
P. $napi$	•	•	•	1	1

In the passage through the district eggs were laid on various cruciferous plants, and, in my own garden, particularly on nasturtium (*Tropacolum*). On the whole, however, considerably fewer eggs were laid than might have been expected in the gardens and allotments and no large-scale damage followed in the district. Damage before the flight started had been distinctly more severe.

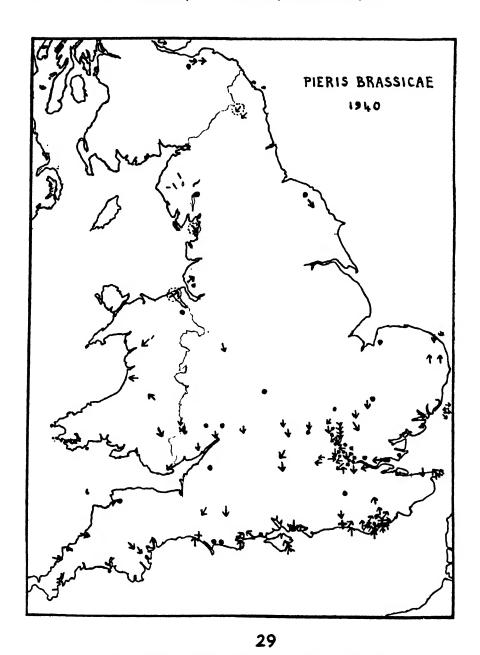


Fig. 29.—Records of flight of P. brassicae in England in 1940.

During the passage of the flight through Harpenden the butterflies were seen on a number of occasions to be attacked by birds, and particularly by sparrows and flycatchers. A small area of the Common just in front of the Laboratories was particularly favoured in this respect and several hundred wings were found on the ground, most frequently in groups of four just as they had been bitten off and dropped by the attacking enemy. One collection of them was sent to Prof. Carpenter at Oxford. The following is a summary of the front wings.

	Fem	ale	Male			
	Left front	Right front	Left front	Right front		
Sent to Oxford Examined at Harpenden .	35 117	39 121	15 44	15 39		

It will be seen that there are remains of nearly three times as many females as males. Prof. Carpenter (1940) reported that 16 of the left fore-wings and 17 of the right had definite beak marks, which according to Collenette's figures (1935, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond. 1935 (2), pl. 1) suggested attacks by Pheasant, Robin, House Sparrow, Starling, Spotted Flycatcher, Great Tit or Blue Tit, and Yellow Hammer or Meadow Pipit or Chiffchaff. There were also many beak marks on the wings retained for examination at Harpenden.

Records outside Harpenden.

Table 24 gives a summary of over one hundred records received of directional flight in other parts of the country, and these, together with some of unusual abundance, are shown on the map in fig. 29.

In England there appear to have been two main movements. The first was to the south through Cambridge, Hertfordshire, Oxford, Shropshire, Gloucester, Somerset and South Wales, occasionally reaching almost to the south coast. The second was a large immigration from the south or south-east all along the south coast from North Foreland in Kent through Eastbourne, Hastings, the Isle of Wight, Bournemouth, Poole, Bridport and South Devon.

In addition to these there were some eastward movements observed in southeast Scotland; one observation of a southerly movement of a very large swarm in Yorkshire; some movements in various directions in Central Wales; and two records of large numbers coming in from the sea on the north Cornwall coast; possibly these latter had come from South Wales.

The butterflies were recorded in unusual numbers all over the country from Fair Isle off the north of Scotland to all parts of England, and in the south of Ireland.

The large numbers of observations round London, shown in the table and on the map, and on the Sussex coast, do not necessarily indicate greater abundance of butterflies, but a greater number of observers and more interest. Many of the London records were obtained through a B.B.C. radio announcement assisted by notices in some newspapers.

TABLE 24.

Records of directional flights of P. brassicae in the British Isles in 1940.

May 18 May 21	Morecambe, Lancs Hilbre Is., Cheshire	S.E. E.N.E.	Many hundreds Thousands	H. W. Slater Blackler (1940)
May 21 May 26	Hilbre Is., Cheshire Catcleugh, Northumberland	s.w.	Very common	R. Craigs
July 14	Nr. St. Albans, Herts	s.w.	Hundreds	N. L. Birkett (1941)
July 14	Abergavenny, Mon.	S.W. and S.	3-4 per min.	J. B. G. Tulloch
July 14	Harpenden, Herts	s.	Many hundreds	(1941) J. Henderson-Smith
July 14	Hitchin (Herts) to Cambridge	ŝ.	Thousands	C. G. Butler
July 14	Wheatfen Broad, Norfolk	N.	"Good numbers"	E. A. Ellis
July 14-23	Brighton	N.E.	On 23rd very large	H. Blackiston
July 15-Aug. 7	Harpenden, Herts	s.	flight Continuous flight	C. B. Williams (see
July 15	Southwick, Sussex	-	Snowstorm	p. 195) B. Storrell
July 15-30	Norwich district, Norfolk	N.	_	E. A. Ellis
July 15	Slough, Bucks	Mostly W.	Hundreds	B. A. Cooper
July 16	Shipwash Lightship, off Harwich,	E.	Dozens	C. L. R. Torner
July 17	Essex Fairlight, E. Sussex	N.	Very common	Shearer
July 17	Hastings, Sussex	N.E.	Very common	A. Belt
July 17	Eastbourne, Sussex	N.E.	Many hundreds	S. J. T. Jose
July 17	Bexhill, Sussex	E.N.E.	Thousands	C. H. J. Sargent
July 17	Crowhurst, E. Sussex	N. E.N.E.	Swarms	C. B. Sharpe T. Dannreuther and
July 17	Hastings, Sussex	E.N.E.	Hundreds	D. Brightmore
July 18-22	Eastbourne, Sussex	W. on 19th	Hundreds	C. H. Hutchinson
July 18	Bexhill, Sussex	From sea		H. D. Peile
July 18–25	Portsmouth, Hants	8.	Considerable flight	LtCol. Baker
July 19	Guestling, Sussex	N.	Large numbers	Mrs. Addison
July 19	Bexhill, Sussex	Up the Valley	" Millions "	Reported to H. D. Peile
July 19	Herne Bay, N. Kent	From the sea	Swarm	M. Greenfield
July 20-27	Bexhill, Sussex	E.	Thousands	H. J. North
July 20-Aug. 6	Tring, Herts	S.E.	"Influx "	A. II. Bishop
July 21-27	Newbury, Berks	S.	Large numbers	A. S. Williams
July 21	Shipwash Lightship, off Harwich, Essex	w.	Dozens	C. L. R. Torner
July 22	Shipwash Lightship, off Harwich,	E.	Dozens	C. L. R. Torner
July 22-23	Essex Farnborough, Berks	s.w.	Thousands	W. Groves
July 22-23	North Foreland Lighthouse,	N.W.	Hundreds	H. W. Bowling
	Kent			
July 22	Ruislip, Middlesex	E.	Hundreds	P. A. Buxton
July 22-25	Burgess Hill, Sussex	8.	Large numbers Large numbers	F. Balfour-Browne
July 23 July 23	Oxford St. Albans, Herts	s. s.	Thin flight	G. D. H. Carpenter D. Brightmore
July 23-25, and	Aberystwyth, Cardigan.	w.	Thin movement	J. R. W. Jenkins
Aug. 1		_		
July 24-29	Nr. Boscastle, N. Cornwall	E.	Passing for 5 days	S. E. Clark
July 24 July 24–25	Builth, Brecknock Walcot on Sea, Norfolk	N.W. S.	Up Wye Valley Several	J. R. W. Jenkins K. Love
July 25 and 29	Harrow, Middlesex	w.	Very large numbers	E. Stone
July 25	Eastbourne, Sussex	From the sea	Hundreds	E. C. Arnold
July 25	Hastings, Sussex	Most S.E.	Very common	T. Dannreuther
July 25	Bexhill, Sussex	E.	Scores	H. D. Perle
July 25 and 26	Eastbourne, Sussex	E. and E.N.E.	Thousands	G. J. T. Jose
July 25-29 July, end	Brighton, Sussex Hastings, Sussex	N. E.	Thousands Very common	H. Blackiston T. Dannreuther
July, end, to	Edinburgh	Gen. to E.	Unusual numbers	A. E. Cameron
mid-Aug.				
July, last week	Shaftesbury, Wilts	s.	Millions	C. M. Coventry
July, last week	Watford, Herts	8.	Large numbers	J. E. Allen
July, last week July, end	Highgate, London, N.6 Bricket Wood, Herts	6. S.E.	1 per sec. in sight Like snowstorm	Mrs. J. R. Priestley N. L. Birkett
July 26	Welling, Kent	w.	Very large numbers	Mrs. Flichmott
July 26-29	Maidenhead, Berks	w.	Steady procession	I. Mees
July 26	Gravs, Essex	w.	Hundreds	K. R. Luten
July 26	Bexhill, Sussex	N.		H. D. Peile
July 26	Shanklin, I.O.W.	N.N.W.	Many thousands	O. S. Best
July 26 July 26	Milford-on-Sea, Hants Eastbourne, Sussex	-	Sudden swarm A second immigration	W. Burton C. H. Hutchinson
July 26	Hastings, Sussex	N.E.	About 100	A. Belt
July 26 and 27	Hastings, Sussex	N.E.	Hundreds	T. Dannreuther
July 27	Crowhurst, Sussex	E	Thousands	G W. Seedbury
July 27 and 28 July 27	Catlord, London, S.E.6	8. or S.E.	Large numbers	II. Fuller J. J. Ketchall
July 27	Worcester Park, Surrey Dolgelley, Merioneth	N. S.W.	Hundreds Flying down valley	J. J. Ketchall J. R. W. Jenkins
July 27	Hounslow, Middlesex	s.w.	Hundreds	F. Coulston
July 27	Hastings, Sussex	w.	Massed	A. J. Cruttenden
July 27	Hastings, Sussex	To E.	Flock	G. W. Seedbury
July 27-28	Lydiate, nr. Liverpool	N.E.	Large numbers	J. Clark
July 28-29 July 28	Sandhurst, Kent	N.	Unusually abundant	G. V. Bull C. H. Hutchinson
July 28	Beachy Head, Sussex Crowlink, Sussex	N. N.E.	Great numbers	C. J. T. Jose
July 28 July 28 July 28	Hastings, Sussex	E. (most)	Thousands	T. Dannreuther
July 28	Eastbourne, Sussex	N. and E.	Thousands	C. H. Hutchinson
July 29	Shipwash Lightship, off Harwich,	S.E.	Dozens	C, L, R, Torner
	Essex			

Table 24 (Continued).

July 29	Canford Cliffs, nr. Poole, Dorset	To N.E.	Groups coming in from sea	J. Heath
July 31	Cardiff, Glamorgan	s.w.	Steady movement	G. F. Cockbill
July 31-Aug. 5	Hove, Sussex	From sea	Up to 20 at a time	G. Eade
Aug., beginning	N. Somerset and S. Gloucester	N.	Invasion	C. L. Walton
		14.	Enormous cloud	N. Tracey
Aug., early	North Wootton, Norfolk	N.	Air filled. From	A. Curtis
Aug. 1	Bridport, Dorset		the sea	
Aug. 1	Cataleugh, Northumberland	s.w.	Very common	R. Craigs
Aug. 2	Hastings, Sussex	E.	Common, but only few moving	T. Danureuther
Aug. 2-6	Hove and Brighton, Sussex	N.	Coming in from sea	E. J. Eade
Aug. 3-4	Newquay, Cornwall	E. or S.E.	Large numbers from	Abel
		211 02 07121	the sea	
Aug. 3	Newport, Salop	S.E.	Numbers	H. C. F. Newton
Aug. 4	Abergavenny, Mon.	s.s.w.	5–6 per min.	J. B. (1. Tulloch (1941)
Aug. 4-11	Torquay, Devon		Swarming	B. A. Thorn
Aug. 4	Poole, Dorset	N.	Thousands from sea	A. Bromby
Aug. 4	Horam and Vines Cross, Sussex	N.E.	Thousands	L. R. Eaton
Aug. 5	Dawlish, S. Devon	W. and N.W.	About 200 per hour	D. C. Thomas
Aug. 4	Goathland, Yorks	8.E.	Like snowstorm	W. S. Medlicote
Aug. 5	Chepstow, Gloucester, Oxford	8.	Thin steady move-	G. F. Cockbill
6.	and Thame		ment	
Aug. 7	Buntingford, Herts	SE.	Thousands	D. A. Boyd
Aug. 8-17	St. Albans, Herts	8.8 E.	Thin movement	D. Brightmore
Aug. 10	Bournemouth, Hants	N.W.	1000 per hour	A. Bromby
Aug. 15	Dunblane, S. Perthshire	E. and N.E.	Unusual numbers	A. E. Cameron
Aug. 16	Black Mts., Monmouth	5.5.E.	2-3 per min, 50 yds.	P. A. Buxton
Aug., mid	Lothians, Scotland	? to E.	Snowstorm	Newspaper report
Aug. 25	Cordom Tor, S. Devon	S.E	Many	C. G. Butler
Aug., end	Newton Abbot, Devon	S.E	Still obvious	C. G. Butler
Sept. 7	Sparkford, Dorset	5.5.W.	Dozens	C. G. Butler

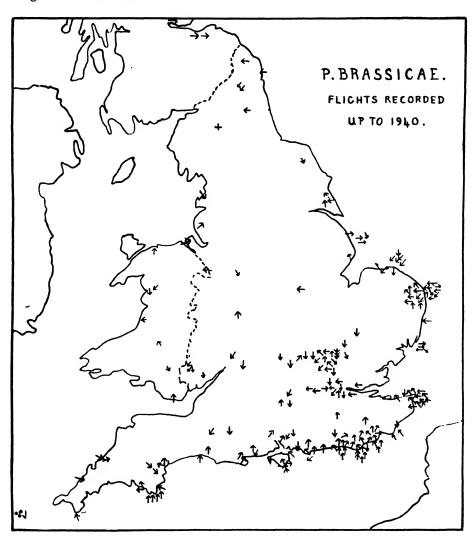
P BRASSICAE IN BRITISH ISLES	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT	ост.	NOV.	DEC.	MONTH NOT STATED
up to 1930.					+	۲ <u>۲</u>	・ べ	++ + + × ×	7				
1931.						44							
1932.					•		4-	1					
1933.					÷•†	4 4	12 4 T	44.4		,			
1934.							7 Î	← →					
1935.					+	u _t		† †					
1936.						7	7	٠,٠٤	7				
1937.					K 4.	e, y 1-a_	74			- +			
1938.					7			1	•				
1939.						→	4						
1940.					x 7			47.7 T	u.				

30

Fig. 30.—Diagram of recorded flights of P. brassicae in the British Isles.

General summary of all records.

Finally, fig. 30 and the maps of England and of the Continent in figs. 31 and 32 give a complete summary of over 300 records so far collected of directional flights of *P. brassicae*.



31
Fig. 31.—Map of all recorded flights of *P. brassicae* in the British Isles.

From fig. 30 it will be seen firstly that records since 1930 have far outnumbered those relating to earlier years. This is not a biological fact, but is due to greatly increased interest in the problem. Secondly, that the chief migration years in England since 1930 have been 1933, 1937, 1939, and 1940, the latter having by far the most widespread and striking movements. Thirdly,

that the two main seasons for migration to occur in England are (1) the end of May and beginning of June and (2) the end of July and first half of August. These two seasons are also found on the Continent but there (Williams 1939c) the second season is very much more important than the first.

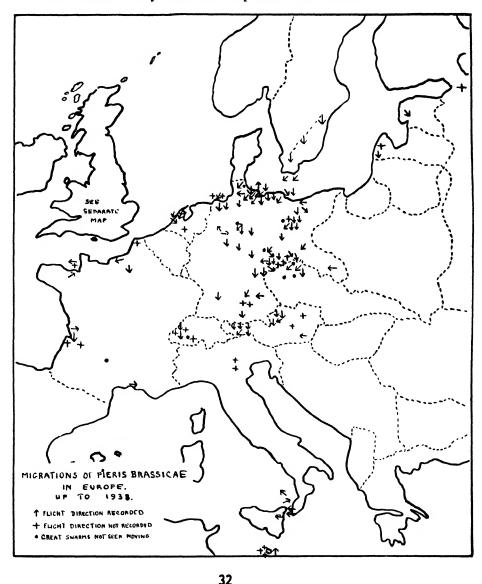


Fig. 32.—Map of all recorded flights of P. brassicae in Europe.

Fig. 33 shows a summary of all flight directions for these two seasons in England and on the Continent. In England both seasons give flights preponderating to W. and N.W. On the Continent the first season is rather vague but the second is overwhelmingly to the south.

The map of England (fig. 31) shows the large numbers of records of migrations round the East and South coasts, and also the effect (in increased number of records) of specially interested observers at Harpenden (about 25 miles N. of London) and at Hastings.

The map of the Continent (fig. 32) shows the very definite southward

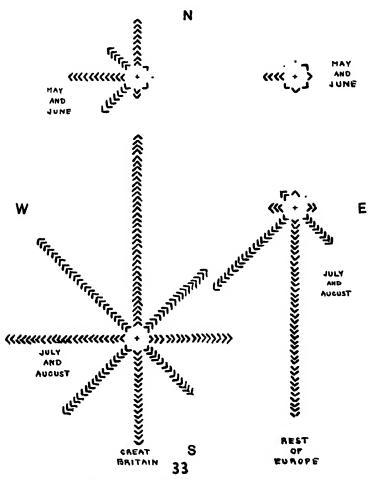


Fig. 33.—Direction of flights of *P. brassicae* in the two flight seasons in Great Britain and on the Continent.

movement which appears to start in Scandinavia, passes south, particularly through East Germany, and the Tyrol, and apparently breaks up against the mass of the Alps.

There are also a few records in the Mediterranean, discussed more fully in Williams 1939a, that do not as yet fit in with any scheme.

(5) Vanessa cardui.

Since my previous review of the species (Williams 1930b: 168-212) the following records have been received for the European area:—

1918, May 11. Lustenau, Vorariberg, Germany. To N.

Many in early afternoon; by 4-6 p.m. very abundant; hundreds seen in an hour, flying very fast. Hammerle (Seitz 1918).

1918, May 17. Oberturkheim, Neckartal, Germany. To N.W.

Many flying 2-4 p.m.; very thick on left bank of Neckar River; flying singly but always 4-5 in sight: fresh condition; flying very fast. Karlgraf (Seitz 1918).

1928, May-June. Scilly Islands.

First seen 31st May, increased to swarm on 3rd June. Frohawk (Entomologist 61:172).

1928, end May and June. British Isles.

Great numbers appeared in Kent. Theobald (*Entomologist* 61: 234). Swarming at Margate on 8th June. Higgins (*loc. cit.*: 952). In extreme abundance at Torquay on 15th June. Morgan (*loc. cit.*: 182). Larvae common at Aberdeen on 17th June.

1928, Aug. and Sept. England.

Numerous records of abundance. 1928, Autumn. Skama, Sweden.

Common (Wahlgren, E., 1928a).

1929, May 28. Hastings, England. To N.E.

Dozens seen flying from 2-5 p.m. on hot day after cold wet spell. Steady rapid flight to N.E. (J. Jones mss.).

1930. England.

Only very few records and several notes on rarity.

1931, May 3. Cavalaire, Var, France. To N.

Very many in groups of 1-7 close to ground, after violent storm from the S.E. (Eliot mss.).

1931, May 24. Schwab-Hall, Würtemberg, Germany. To N.E.

Flying 5-6 p.m. every half-minute, always 2-3 in sight, about 200 altogether, flying with the wind (Renner 1931).

1931, May 24. Flims, Graubunden, Switzerland. To N.W.

From morning to evening in quick flight. Corti (Warnecke 1931).

1931, May. Leysim, Switzerland. To N.E.

Flying in numbers. Dr. G. Marburg and P. Eschwege (Warnecke 1931).

1931, May 25. Zurich, Switzerland. To N.E. (by compass).

Flying along railway track, one per minute, out of sight of each other. Temperature 30° C. (Fischer 1937).

1931, May end. Ozoir la Ferrière, nr. Paris, France. ? To N.

Flight seen by R. Oberthur (Mezger 1932).

1931, May end. England.

Arrived in great numbers on Sussex coast on 27th (Ent. Rec. 43: 111). Invasion of great numbers in Devon on 29th May (Ent. mon. Mag. 67: 160).

1931, June 3. Ozoir la Ferrière, nr. Paris, France. To N.

A hundred passed singly very fast (Mezger 1932).

1931, June 4. Sark, Channel Island. ? To N.

Numbers coming in from the sea with P. brassicae from French coast. Newman (Ent. Rec. 43: 185).

1931, July 12. Edinburgh, Scotland.

One seen (C.B.W.).

1931, July 5. Bardon Hill, Leicester, England. ? To S.W. by W.

Hundreds in migratory flight on warm sunny afternoon (D. P. Lewis mss.).

1931, July 23. St. Leonhard, Pitztal, Tyrol. To S.

Thousands flying singly on Blockkogel (3098 m.) from 11 to 12 a.m. in spite of low air temperature. Again seen 1-2 p.m. (Bergmann 1931).

1931, July-Aug. St. Kilda, Outer Hebrides, Scotland.

Seen almost every day from 24th July to 10th August. Lack (Ent. mon. Mag. 68: 143).

1931, end July. Stockholm, Sweden.

Three females captured. Richter (Seitz 1931).

1931, Aug. Iceland.

One captured at Flateg, Breidafjordur, and four at Skjaldvarafoss. M. Bjornson (Reykjavik N.H. Mus.).

1931, Aug. 3. Belvedere, nr. Champex, Switzerland. To S.S.E.

Flying continuously in groups of 5-6 from 11 to 12 a.m., a few feet below the Belvedere Ridge on west side at altitude of about 5500 feet. Clear sunny day. Thackeray (Williams 1933b).

1931, Aug. 4 and 5. Near Bludenz in Vorarlberg, Austria. To S.

Many hundreds flying to south, seen for many hours on the 4th and from 8 a.m. on the 5th. Also seen on Mondspitz 2000 metres high (Lenz 1931).

1931, Aug. 20. Val d'Arpette, Switzerland. To W. of S.

One or two per minute on 100-yard front across top of valley. Thackeray (Williams 1933b).

1932, May 21. Bohnabreena, Co. Dublin, Ireland. To N.W.

About 8 passing 3-4 p.m. in steady rapid flight, wind light N.W. (C. C. Ellison mss.).

1932, May 25 and 26. North Foreland, Kent. To W. and N.W.

Small number passing, wind N.-N.E. (Bowling mss.).

1932, June end. Balancourt, nr. Corbeil, Seine et Oise, France. To N.N.E.

Flight of many thousands, 10 a.m. to 1.30 p.m., flying at level of the tree tops in belt not more than 15 feet wide. Fine, no wind. Gastineau (Williams 1939d).

1932, Aug. 9. Winchelsea, Sussex. To W.

Small number, very fast and lively (Tomlin mss.).

1932, end Sept. Arosa, Switzerland. To S.

Flight observed coming over the "Obersee" for many hours without change of flight line. Fischer (1937: 67).

1932, Sept. or Oct. Iceland.

One captured at Faqurholsmyri in S.E. of Iceland and now in collection of Reykjavik Museum. (G. Gigja in letter to T. Dannreuther.)

1933, May 19. Start Point, Devon. To W.

About 9 seen coming in from the sea about 3 p.m., calm. Temperature about 58° F. (Godfrey mss.).

1933, May 28 and 29. Start Point, Devon. To N.

Small numbers seen. Wind E. and S.W. (Godfrey mss.).

1933, June 1-27. Start Point, Devon. To N., N.W. or W.

Every day twenty to thirty seen in rapid flight inland (Godfrey mss.). 1933, July to Sept. Reykjavik, Iceland.

Several seen on 19th July; very common on 8th and 9th August; ten seen on 9th September. G. Gigja. Two in collection of Reykjavik Museum. 1933, Oct. St. Marys, Scilly Islands. To S.

During first fortnight hundreds of cardui and atalanta about, chiefly going south, all gone about 16th (R. Trotter mss.).

1934, beginning of Aug. Swanage, Dorset. To W.

Steady flight across sea from Isle of Wight towards Swanage (Jobling mss.).

1935, March 9. Lydda, Palestine. To N.

Thousands seen at 11 a.m. Wind light S.W. Dallmeyer (27.xii.1935, Times).

1935, March, end. Cyprus. To W.

Large number seen flying to W. at Nicosia. Damage by larvae in April and May. Not seen and no damage later in year. Morris (Ann. Rept. Dept. Agr. Cyprus 1935).

1936, June 19. Scilly Islands. To N.

About 20 seen. Wind light S.E. (Trotter mss.)

1936, June 21–26. Isle of Wight. To W. and N.W.

About 200 seen passing. Rapid flight on 21st and 26th (Buckstone mss.).

1936, Oct. 1-10. St. Marys, Scilly Islands. To S.E.

Scores passing, wind E. and S.E. (R. Trotter mss.).

1937, May 29. Near Rye, E. Sussex, England. To N.

Steady trickle of ones and twos coming inland from the sea from 4.30 to 8 p.m. Fine and warm. Wind light N.E. (Ticehurst mss.).

1937, June 11. Round Island, Scilly Islands. To N.N.E.

Dozens passing 1-6 p.m. Sunny, wind light S. (Trotter mss.).

1937, Aug. 1-7. Nr. Hastings, Sussex. To N.N.W.

About one hundred seen coming in from the sea about 3 feet above the water. Sunny and warm, no wind (Eves mss.).

1939, May 28. Ionian Sea, Mediterranean. To S.E.

Migration observed in lat. 36° 40′ N., long. 18° 22′ E., about 150 miles S.E. of Italy (H.M. Naval Vessel report).

1939, May 18-June 19. Cavalaire, Var, France. To N., N.E. and N.W.

Seen passing almost every day (N. Eliot 1939, mss.).

1939, May 31. Nr. Dartmouth, Devon. To N.

About forty seen coming in from sea flying high and not stopping (Brown mss.).

1939, June 7. St. Marys, Scilly Islands. To N.W.

Dozens passing, bright warm day. Wind N.E. (R. Trotter mss.).

1939, June 7. Riehen, nr. Basle, Switzerland. To E.

Migration from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m., like a snowstorm in p.m. (newspaper report).

1989, June 8. Rennes, W. France. To N. Many hundreds passed noon to 3 p.m. Weather stormy with occasional sun, warm, wind moderate west (R. Oberthur mss.).

1939, June 8. Chiemsee, nr. Munich. To N.E. Migration according to newspaper report.

1939, June 5-12. Garonne and Dordogne, France.

Extraordinary passage, literally all over the place. Sabastian (Muspratt in litt.).

1939, June 19. Savoie, France. To N.W. and N.E.

Thin migration, 3 per minute on 50-yard front at junction of Isère and Arc Rivers.

Mostly to N.W. with about 8% up a valley to N.E. (Eliot, 1939 and mss.).

1939, July. N.W. France. Very heavy damage by caterpillars to artichoke, in Brest-Finistère district (newspaper

report and letter from M. Cusson).

It will be seen that the recent years of unusual abundance were 1928, 1931, 1937 and 1939. In 1930, 1934, 1935 and 1938, on the contrary, there were very few records. Estimates of the numbers recorded each year for 1928-1931 will be found in Table 4, and a discussion of the earlier history on p. 114.

It is interesting to note that in the above list there are only three records of flight in September and October and they are all in a southerly direction as follows:—(1) 1932, end Sept., Switzerland to S.; (2) 1933, begin. Oct., Scilly Islands to S.; (3) 1936, begin. Oct., Scilly Islands to S.

The problem of the return flight is dealt with on p. 242.

V. cardui in the Atlantic and in West Africa.

A number of records are now available for the occurrence of V. cardui in West Africa and at sea off the West African coast. The following is a summary of the evidence.

At Sea.

1858, May 28. Off Tenerifie.

One captured 90 miles west of Teneriffe. Trimen (1873, J. Linn. Soc. 11:276).

1866, Sept. 16. Off Cape Verde Islands.

Many seen about 200 m. from Cape Verde Islands and about 600 miles from Gambia. Herbert (1867, Entomologist 3: 266). (? 1891.) Off N.W. Coast of Africa.

Many thousands fell exhausted on deck of sailing vessel several hundred miles from shore, for nearly 24 hours. Buckstone (1926, Entomologist 59: 171). 1904, end Sept. or early Oct. Off Cape Verde.

Several seen about 47 miles from land. Manders (1905, Ent. Rec. 17: 235).

1932, Sept. 28. S. of Madeira.

Flight between 11 p.m. and midnight in lat. 17° 47' N. and 17° 35' W.; 87 miles from land. Twelve captured, four males and eight females. D. Kingdom (Poulton 1932b and 1933b and c).

1935, Sept. 28. Between Cape Verde Islands and Coast.

Ship steamed all day through swarm of many hundreds: moderate N.E. trade wind. J. S. Hudson (Riley 1936).

It will be noted that in four of the five records in which the month is given, the period is September or October. The only exception (Trimen 1858) relates only to a single individual.

In Nigeria.

There is also considerable evidence to show that in Nigeria the species becomes suddenly abundant year after year at just the same period. Records are available for 1928-1936.

In 1928 V. cardui appeared in the Benue Province towards the end of September and were still abundant at the end of October. At Kafsina Ala on the 27th September there were hundreds and many pairs mating (O. B. Lean).

In 1929 it was seen at Ibadan on 25-27th September and at Ilorin (N. Nigeria) from the 9th to 14th October in some numbers and a few till the end of the month (O. B. Lean). At Arochuku Heslop (1931) reports a small

immigration at the same time as in 1930 (q.v.).

In 1930 it was first seen at Bende on 1st October and increased rapidly in numbers, always faded and sometimes frayed. By mid-October "almost every patch of intensely hot bare soil on the paths and open hill sides had its cardui." It was generally abundant but by the end of October the numbers had begun to decline and by 9th November hardly a specimen was to be seen (Heslop 1931). Heslop considers that there had been "a large migration on the southerly and south-easterly breezes of late September."

According to O. B. Lean, it appeared in this year in Ibadan on 25th September

but not in large numbers.

In 1931 Heslop (1932) records the first one seen at Okigwi in S.E. Nigeria on 15th September and by the end of the month it was possible to see a dozen at once. They were also in small numbers at Port Harcourt from 6th to 15th October.

In 1932 the first were observed at Port Harcourt on 29th September (Heslop 1935) and two or three were seen most days during October; the last here was on the 2nd November. A few, however, were seen in the north of the province on the 5th November.

In 1933 Heslop was away during the normal cardui season, but on his return he saw one individual at Okigwi in the extreme north of the province

on 22nd November (Heslop 1935).

In 1934 a small and battered female was seen at Okigwi on 16th May, a faded male came to light on the evening of the 17th June and another on the following night. The normal arrival was a little later than usual and the first specimen was seen by Heslop (1935) on 4th October at Orlu; they had, however, already been seen at Okigwi on the 16th-22nd September by Lipscomb. They think that the flight originated on the edge of the Sahara desert, which is about 200 miles to the north of Kaduna, and had worked its way south. The last specimen was seen on the 11th November and the species was much rarer than usual.

In 1935 Golding (Williams 1936a) reports that he saw one on 8th July, which was the first that he ever recollected occurring at that time of the year; later four were seen on 30th September, which he says is the normal time of the year. Heslop (1937) reports that in this year he saw no May-June individuals. He was away later in the year but was informed that there was a sparse appearance in October and the early part of November.

In 1936 the September-October flight failed completely and Heslop (1937)

sawfonly one individual near Obetin on the 5th October.

There is no doubt from the above evidence that there is considerable migration activity of *Vanessa cardui* in that area of West Africa south of the Sahara in the months of September and October, and one is tempted to suggest that there may be a southward migration from the edges of the desert belt at this time of the year corresponding to the northward movement about March. There is unfortunately a great scarcity of accurate records any farther south on the coast so that the suggestion cannot be confirmed. One must, as so frequently occurs in this study, await further evidence.

A remarkable record of the occurrence of V. cardui in mid-Atlantic is worth while drawing attention to here. Mathews (1865) records that on 4th August 1865 he was on board a battleship standing by the "Great Eastern" while she was laying the Trans-atlantic cable. The position was 51° 33′ N. and 38° 17′ W. The sea had been dead calm, "as smooth as glass" for several days. A "Painted Lady" butterfly was found alive floating on the surface of the sea, and about noon another was seen flying round the ship and continued to do so for the whole of the afternoon. The position is in the North Atlantic about 1100 miles due west of the south of Ireland and 500 miles east of Newfoundland.

Just over two weeks later they entered the harbour of St. John, Newfoundland, and found V. cardui in the greatest profusion, as it had been in Cork, Ireland, in mid-July.

It is almost impossible to believe that these butterflies had been unnoticed on the ship since leaving the Irish Coast three weeks before. The butterflies must have flown to the position when they were found.

(6) Glycestha aurota (= Belenois mesentina Cr.).

The following new records have come to hand since the publication of my previous summary (Williams 1930b).

1927, 1928 and 1929: Oct. and Nov. Pretoria, Transvaal. To N.

Vast numbers in early summer of each year. "One butterfly to every 10 yards in four or five tiers." As far as eye could see in all directions for one or two hours. E. G. Smith (Williams 1939b).

1928-29, Summer. Boshoek, Rustenburg, Transvaal. To N.

Myriads on a warm afternoon with no wind: flight from 2 p.m. to dusk. Some low enough to go through fences, others above scrubby bush. No attempt to settle. Flying about 25 feet apart (G. W. Hockey mss.).

1930, Feb. 11-April 9. S.E. Kenya and N.E. Tanganyika. To S., S.E. and E.

Sixteen records received of flights between Mbule and Kikori in west, Ngari Nairok and Voi (in Kenya) in north, Korogwe in south and the coast on the east, an area of about 280 by 150 miles (reported fully in Williams 1931).

1931, Dec. Barberton, Natal. To N.E.

Large numbers passed over for 2 or 3 weeks. Pearson (Williams 1936a).

1932, Jan. 28. Londiani, Kenya. To E.N.E.

Small but definite migration in teeth of steady breeze from E.N.E. Middle of dry season, no rain for six weeks. Some C. florella in flight. R. M. Graham (Williams 1933b). 1932, April 8-11. Londiani, Kenya. To E.N.E.

A second migration, no rain for nearly two weeks. Many specimens sent, all G. aurota. R. M. Graham (Williams 1933b). (Note that a few days later specimens were sent from a continuation of this flight and they were all G. creona = severina.)

1932, Dec. Barberton, Natal. To N.E. Passed over for two or three weeks. Pearson (Williams 1936a).

1932 or 1933, March or April. Nr. Salisbury, S. Rhodesia. To S.E.

Steady stream of millions of white butterflies from 5.30 a.m. all one day and part of next-flying 10-15 feet above ground (G. T. Bennett mss.).

1933, March 1-15. Amani, Tanganyika. To E.N.E. and S.S.E.
Slight migrations from 1st March to E.N.E., but not noticeable to casual observers till 11th March, when it changed to S.S.E. and passed in larger numbers till 15th. Moreau (Williams 1935d).

1933, March S. Limuru, Kenya. To N.

Started this year about 8th March instead of usual January and flew to N. instead of more usual S. Weather hot and little rain. Wind from south which was also unusual. Knight (Williams 1935d).

1933, March 12 and April 10. Londiani, Kenya. To N.N.E.

Most days wind strong from N.E. or N.N.E. Flight 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. Weather mostly bright and clear; rains overdue. Max. flight 100 insects per 100 yards square on 21st March. Graham (Williams 1934d).

1933, March 19-20. Njoro, Kenya. To N.

Flying in millions in unusual direction, flight normally to south. Dawson (Williams 1935d).

1933, March 28. Molo, Kenya. To W.

Passing for several days. Dawson (Williams 1935d).

1933, May, 1st week. Londiani, Kenya. To N.E. and N.N.E.

Small migration in usual direction, usually against the wind, rains about two months overdue. On 5th and 6th May up to 20 butterflies on 100 sq. yards. Graham (Williams 1935d).

1933, June 15-16. Gulf of Aden. ? To N.E.

Off Cape Gardefui and in Gulf of Aden; migrating from African Coast towards Arabia. Stoneham (Williams 1939b).

1933, July, about 5th. Off Cape Gardefui. To N.

Hundreds flying in face of N.E. monsoon. Seen from ship about 2 miles from shore. Several came to rest on deck. Flying from close to waves up to about 100 feet. Clear, hot (D. W. Bowell mss.).

1934, Jan. Serowe, Bechuanaland. To N.E.

Millions crossed over, also reported 20 miles farther north (newspaper report).

1934, Jan. 20. Pretoria to Belfast, Transvaal. To E.

White butterflies flying in numbers. DuToit (Williams 1935d).

1934, Jan. 24. Potchefstroom, Transvaal. To N.E.

Vast numbers passed in afternoon. 100 in ten minutes passed a given point. Reported also from Johannesburg (D. P. Murray mss.).

1934, Jan., end. Lydenburg, Transvaal. To E. Invasion of millions. Continuous stream seen all way from Petersburg to Rustenburg

(newspaper report). 1934, Jan. and Feb. Windhoek, S.W. Africa. To N.W.

Migrating day after day across or with the wind on hills at about 1800 metres. One individual every 5 sq. yards. Occasionally stop to feed (K. Jordan 1936).

1934, Feb., beginning. Johannesburg, Transvaal. To E.

Millions passed for about 10 days. On 5th could have captured hundreds per hour.

Millions passed for about 10 days. On oth could have captured numerous per nour. Wind variable and light. Weather sunny with occasional showers. Flying at ground level up to 30 or 40 feet. Many very worn. Adkin (Williams 1935d).

1934, Feb. 6-March, mid. Amani, Tanganyika. To 8.

Small migration on 6th, increased to "rush" on 20th. After 28th decreased rather suddenly and only stragglers up to mid-March. Direction a few degrees E. of S. instead of more usual S.E. At peak 40 per minute on 15 yards front. Moreau (Williams 1935d).

1934, Feb. 11-15. Nairobi, Kenya. ? To or from S.S.W.

Flight in same direction as wind. "S.S.W." but not clear if this is "to" or "from."

Flight in same direction as wind, "S.S.W.", but not clear if this is "to" or "from."

R.A.S. (Williams 1935d).

1934, Feb. Londiani, Kenya. To N.W. or N.N.W.

Passing for a few days before 15th Feb.; on this day increased greatly in numbers. Wind N. in morning, changing to S.W. or W. in afternoon. Weather very dry. Thunderstorm and first rain for a month on evening of 14th. Maximum flight 15-18th. Graham (Williams 1935d).

1934, Feb. Meru, Tanganyika.

Flight as dense as a blinding snowstorm (M. E. Fountaine mss.).

1934, March 1-5. Johannesburg, Transvaal. To N.

Large migration. Traced on 5th as far as Nylstrom about 250 miles to north (J. S. Pringle mss.).

1934, Nov. 21 and Dec. 26. Graaf-Reinet, Cape Province. To N.E.

On 21st Nov. large numbers 7 a.m. in early morning, but all gone by midday. Very hot; wind strong N.W. A few seen in afternoon and stragglers in following week. Flight again noticeable on 26th December. Taylor (Williams 1935d).

1935, Nov. 18. Barberton, Natal. To S.W. or W.

Flight from about 10 a.m. to dusk. At house of observer flight to S.W., but at farm some distance away and round a bend in the hills direction to W. Slight breeze from N.E. 33 females and 21 males sent. Marshall and Pearson (Williams 1936a). 1936, March 5. Sudan. To W.

Large swarm drifting slowly to W. between Karma (lat. 13° 37' and long. 24° 18') and Om (lat. 13° 38' and long. 24° 35') on the Fasher-Kelkebia road. J. B. Cowland (Williams 1939b).

1937, Aug. Nairobi, Kenya. To E.

Thin migration with C. florella and B. severina. Rogers (Williams 1939b).

1937, Oct. 23-25. Trans-Nzoia, Kenya. To E.

Thousands in each morning. Wind strong from E. except on part of last day, when strong from W. On 25th, 65 per minute passing 50 yards front (Stoneham mss.). 1937. Oct., end. Thompson Falls, Rumarruti, Kenya. To S.

Millions passed in constant stream over front of many miles, reported by Conservator of Forests. Flying, according to newspapers, against a strong S. wind (T. W. Kirkpatrick mss.).

1937, Nov. 30. N.W. of Lake Victoria, Uganda. To E.

Thousands flying between Mahendi and Mityana. Wind N.E., force 2 (C. Longfield mss.).

1938, Feb. 2-17. Trans-Nzoia, Kenya. To E.

Generally hundreds passing, but thousands between 14th and 16th. Wind strong E. on 2nd and 3rd. Flying close to ground. Weather hot and dry (Stoneham mss.). 1938, Feb. 6-9. Amani, Tanganyika. To E.

Definite migration, winds light and variable, chiefly from N.E. (R. E. Moreau

1938, Feb. 10-17. Mt. Elgon, Kitale, Kenya. To S.E.
On 10th, 6-8 in sight at once. Weather dry, wind strong from W., which is unusual in dry weather. Flying 3-6 feet from ground. Locality 6700 feet above sea-level. On 11th January observer went 17 miles to east but no flight seen off slopes of mountain. Getting fewer till 17th, flight less definite and more to S. Wind gradually returned to more usual N.E. (E. M. Tweedie mss.).

1938, Feb. 15-19. N. side of Kilimanjaro, Kenya. To W.N.W.

On 15th marked migration at Engari-Rongaii (6500 feet), wind light N.E. On 16th intermittent but at times copious migration over trees of forest belt 6500-8000 feet, and over heatherland at 8000, when very large numbers resting in sheltered places. Steady N.E. breeze all day. Between 17th and 19th Feb. each day slight but definite migration 8000-11,000 feet. Wind light N.E. (Moreau mss.).

1938, Nov. 27. Off Gambia Coast, W. Africa.

Flight seen from steamer 50 miles off Gambia Coast. Three captured (1 male and 2 females). In lat. 13° 27′ N., long. 17° 36′ W. (W. F. Palmer mss.).

1938, Dec. 2. At sea off Cape Verde, W. Africa.

Small numbers came on board ship 6-7 p.m. Ship had passed 2-3 miles off Cape Verde at noon going south. 2 captured (S. F. Clay mss.). 1938, Dec. 10. At sea off Dakar, W. Africa. ? To S.

Hundreds of white butterflies seen from noon to 3 p.m. Ship arrived at Dakar at 6 p.m. Butterflies flying S. Wind from N. Always 2-3 butterflies in sight. 3-20 feet above sea. Weather overcast and rather cool (M. F. Meiklejohn mss.).

1939, mid-Jan. Louisvale, Bechuanaland.

Sudden influx of white butterflies which appeared to arrive during the night and disappear next day, about three weeks before 5th February. Similar invasions noticed previously when they appear to come with a strong E. or N.E. wind. 4 specimens captured (B. T. Mennell).

1939, March 2-11. Amani, Tanganyika. To E. and N.E.

On 2nd marked migration to E. and N.E. On 3rd migration slight, wind N.E.; 4-10th very few; 11th rather more, wind very strong N.E., direction rather more northerly. 24 captured (R. E. Moreau mss.).

1940, March 22-27. Entebbe District, Uganda. To W.S.W.

Seen from Entebbe to Luzura and to Mawokoto border, also through Mengo and to Bugerera. Extreme line from Bugerera to Mawoke is about 140 miles. Continued each day from 7.30 a.m. to 6.30 p.m. At Luzira on 23rd, 21 per minute passing on 22-foot front. Were seen crossing the Nile from the eastern provinces in the Bugerere district. 39 males and 10 females captured (C. W. Chorley mss.).

In addition to the above records Mr. J. Peniston writes that he has seen migrations of white butterflies on three occasions at Weenen, Natal, always to the N.E. Also Hemming writes (1939, Entomologist 67: 135) that in Palestine the species is most common from August to November but that fresh specimens have been recorded in January (at Tabgha and at Jericho) and worn ones at Beersheba in April.

The above observations, together with those already summarised, give a total of nearly one hundred records. These are shown diagrammatically in

G AUROTA	JAN.	FEB.	MAR.	APR.	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT.	ост.	NOV.	DEC.	MONTO NOT STATE
PALESTINE							7						
ECYPT 4M SUDAN			4	•									
CULF OF ADEN		,				,	t						
UGANDA			K		я						4		
KENYA	¢.>	24.22 24.22	7 E 111 4	\$ 17	7		2	→		→,			
TANGANYIKA	+	7 67 4 7 67 4 7 64 4	4 7	+									
S RHODESIA				4									
TRANSVAAL AND SWAZILAND	7 [→] 2	→ ₇	↑ →							A.	.3	1	
ORANGE PREG STATE, BECHUANA LAND BASUTOLAN D	4	-	•								,	,	→
CAPE PROVINCE											E	77	
N W. AFRICA											+ +	+	
S.W. APRICA	٨.	.5		-									

Fig. 34.—Diagram of recorded flights of Glycestha aurota (= Belenois mesentina) in Africa.

fig. 34. From this it will be seen that the great majority of records are in Kenya and Tanganyika and in the months of February and March. In these two countries there are very few records at any other time of the year. In the southern portion of the continent the flights have been most frequently recorded in Natal and Cape Province in November and December, but in the Orange Free State and Transvaal etc., they are distinctly later in January to March.



Fig. 35.—Diagram showing flight directions of G. aurota in three different areas in Africa.

The few records in West Africa, in Gambia and off this coast are all in November and December.

The direction of the recorded flights in each of the three areas, Kenya, Tanganyika (almost all records in the N.E.) and the Union of South Africa are shown in fig. 35. From this it will be seen that in South Africa the flights are definitely towards the N.E. and in Tanganyika towards the S.E.; but in

Kenya there is no prevailing direction.

It would appear that there is a source of migration somewhere in the southwest of South Africa whence come their flights, and that the flights in N.E. Tanganyika originate to the N.W. in Kenya; but the source of the Kenya flights is not definitely indicated. Pitman (1928, Proc. ent. Soc. Lond. 3:45) has suggested that they originate in the Western Nile Provinces of Uganda, where, in 1928, he found the food-plant (Capparidaceae) abundant and defoliated by caterpillars of this butterfly over large areas. No migration was, however, noticed to be proceeding from here in spite of the vast numbers of butterflies present.

If this were the main source one would expect the flights in Kenya to show

a more definite south-easterly or easterly trend.

(7) Glycestha creona (= Belenois severina).

The following are new records since my last summary (Williams 1930b).

1930, April 5–8. Karonga, Nyasaland. To S.E.

Passing for four days, 2 males, 2 females captured. Lilford (Williams 1933b).

1932, April 29—May 11. Mt. Elgon, Kenya. To N.E.

Occasional on most days, very thick on 6th May, steady stream on 7th, wind when recorded from N.E. slight to strong, females commoner than males (Moysey 1932).

1932, mid-April to beginning of May. Londiani, Kenya. To E.N.E.

A flight of *G. aurota* had been noted 8th-11th April (q.v.) and appeared to continue without break, but on 17th April 22 specimens captured were all *creona* (10 females and 12 males). On 17th wind from N.N.E. Flight continued spasmodically during rest of April. On 2nd May about 4000 per hour crossing 30 yards front. Graham (Williams 1933b).

1932, Sept. 7-8. Diafarabé, French Sudan. To W.S.W.

On 7th at noon flying along N. bank of River Niger. Wind fresh S.S.E., force 4, over by 4 p.m., many stopped to settle in flowers of tree, Parkinsonia aculeata. On 8th only slight flight, wind S.W., force 2-3; later same day dense swarm of locust passed to E. (O. B. Lean mss.).

1937, Aug. Nairobi, Kenya. To E.

Thin migration with C. florella and B. mesentina (K. St. A. Rogers mss.).

Dr. C. Seydel writes that he has seen this species migrating from W. to E. at Elisabethville, Belgian Congo, in May and November nearly every year. It is said there to feed on Cereopetalum dasyanthum.

This insect is a much less definite migrant than the previous species Glucestha aurota, but is frequently mistaken for it in flight and with many of the records of "White butterflies" in East Africa it is impossible to say which species was concerned.

It will be seen, however, from fig. 36, which contains all the known records which are definitely this species, that the time of flight in East Africa is distinctly different from that of G. aurota. The latter (fig. 34) started about the end of December and died away about April, whereas this species has most of its flights in East Africa in May and June with one flight in Tanganyika extending through July and August. This species also extends across into the Belgian Congo, where there are several records of flight, but does not reach so far north in N. or E. Africa as does the previous species.

One of the more interesting records is that of April 1932 at Londiani, Kenya; Mr. Graham had noted a flight of white butterflies in the early part of the month (8th-11th) and had sent specimens all of which were G. aurota. About a week later (on the 17th), during which period the flight had not ceased, a number of specimens sent were all G. creona.

G CREONA - B SEVERINA	JAN.	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AU6.	SEPT	ост.		DEC.	MONTH NOT STATE
FRENCH SUDAN									Ł.				
KENYA				7	Ē			→					+
UGANDA				٧	44 1	1) K							
TANGANYIKA						S	→ ′ ړ	÷ ′)			Š	
BELGIAN CONCO					‡						111		
HAVETTUD				K									
RHODESIA												ZZ	
SOUTH AFRICA	. 1 . 10 .	+ Z.	7 7	٦							+		

Fig. 36.—Diagram of recorded flights of Glycestha creona (= Belenois severina) in Africa.

36

These two butterflies make an interesting example of the necessity of careful identification in the field, and of the need of getting a number of specimens at intervals during the same flight.

(8) Glycestha (Belenois) java teutonia.

Glycestha java is the only "white" butterfly of which I have definite records of migration in Australia. On several occasions statements have been made suggesting that some species of Delias, possibly D. nigrina or D. harpalyce, also migrate, but in spite of many enquiries I have been unable to get any confirmation in the form of actual specimens caught during a migration.

In my previous summary (Williams 1930b) I was able to give about a dozen records of flight of G. java and the following are additions to this list.

1882, Feb.-April. Nr. Rockhampton, Queensland.

B. teutonia and Catopsilia pomona literally swarmed for a time and for a few days fell like snow in streets of Rockhampton (G. Barnard 1883).

1886-7, summer. Melbourne, Victoria.

Simply swarmed in the district (Lucas 1887).

1920-21, Dec.-Jan. Glass-house Mts., Queensland.

Puxley (n.d.) repeats the account previously quoted (Williams 1930b) but gives the date as December or January instead of September.

About 1921. Near Brisbane, Queensland. To S.

One day, about fifteen years before 1936, clouds flew over Stradbroke Island, about 20 miles S. of Brisbane, in close formation (Wilkinson mss.).

? 1933. Morea, N.S. Wales. To N.W.

Countless thousands seen by Mr. A. Musgrave. Found breeding in great numbers on wild orange and wild pomegranate (newspaper report).

1934, ? Dec. Coldstream, nr. Melbourne, Victoria. To E.

Thousands passed over farm, some settling (newspaper report).

1935, about January. Sydney, N.S.W. To E.

Millions flying through town and out to sea. Flying low near ground. Irvine (Williams 1936a).

1935-36, summer. Southern Victoria. To S.

Myriads flying, very abundant on Phillip Island, Western Port Bay, as well as on mainland (C. Barrett mss.).

1937, end Jan. or beginning Feb. Sydney, Australia. Approx. to N.

Flight for two days, but less dense on second; observed at Lane Cove River, about 4 miles N.W. of Sydney. Flight chiefly 2-3 feet above ground, rose vertically over buildings and descended again into a quadrangle; about 70 per minute on 90-foot front at 2-3 p.m. and over 100 per min. on 85-foot front between 4 and 5 p.m. (N. Burke-Gaffney mss.). 1938, Jan.-Feb. Edgecliff, Sydney. To N.E.

First specimen, a male, seen on 1st January. On 10th January, thin migration, 310 females and 519 males passed through gap in hedge in 3 hours, all to N.E.; flew from garden out over water at Rose Bay. Flying 2-8 feet about ground. Following day only a few stragglers. On 17th, 25th and 27th January and 12th February very occasional males seen passing to N.E. On 29th March about 10 males seen passing to N.E. (A. D. M. Busby mss.).

1938, Nov. Sydney.

Thousands of small white butterflies have invaded the coast round Sydney, drifting with the wind (Sydney newspaper of 11th November 1938).

1938, Nov. 9-11. Sydney. To N.

On 9th November a boat crew on river was "greatly incommoded" by thousands of butterflies: wind a little W. of N., force 1. Temp. 87° F. On 10th flight continued. Thirty butterflies seen round one bush: speed about 6 m.p.h., temp. 97° F., wind almost W., force 3: many seen sleeping in pine trees in evening. On 11th at 9 a.m. 20 individuals timed over measured 200 feet with stop-watch: speed varied from 4 to 10 m.p.h. with average just over 8; wind S., force 1: flying 2-20 feet from ground, majority about 6. Numbers crossing 100 feet of hedge average 20 per min. for 15 minutes. At 10 a.m. 500 passed in 15 minutes on a 180-foot front. Ten tests for speed at this hour gave 6½ m.p.h. Only few stragglers left at 2 nm. On 12th many about but not moving in any definite Only few stragglers left at 2 p.m. On 12th many about but not moving in any definite direction (N. Burke-Gaffney mss.).

1939, Nov. and Dec. Sydney. To N., N.N.E. and W. On 15th November one male flying to north. On 3rd December 10 to 15, mostly males, flying to N.N.W. about 5-10 feet from ground. On 11th December small flight in morning for about 2 hours, about 15 feet above ground. Rather denser flight for about 3 hours in afternoon. To N.N.W. On 14th December very thick flight, thousands and thousands, flying to west (unusual direction). Wind light from E. but not enough to affect butterflies. Valerian in garden weighed down with butterflies settling on it. First noted 8 a.m., all gone by noon. Thirteen males and 2 females captured (A. D. M. Busby mss.).

In addition to the above records, which are more or less definitely Belenois java, Mr. A. D. M. Busby gave me the following notes on a flight of white butterflies that he saw in the Yarraman Valley, Liverpool Range, N.S. Wales, in December 1907, all flying from south to north.

Large numbers of butterflies with black tips to wings and marked beneath with red and yellow were migrating. The flight was about 3 miles wide and outside this there were no butterflies. The edge of the flight was so definite that although large numbers were passing through the front of his house, which was on one edge of the flight, none could been seen at the back of the house. The butterflies were flying from about 3 to 20 feet above the ground. They were first seen at sunrise, rested at midday and resumed again at 2 p.m. till sundown, when they rested for the night. One Jasmine shrub in the garden was drooping with the weight of the butterflies settled on it. On the following day millions were in the air at sunrise; during the day the numbers reached 30-40 per square yard. Again they rested at midday and resumed their

flight, almost simultaneously at 2 p.m. On the third day there were fewer and on the fourth only stragglers. Mr. Busby notes that the ordinary common field butterflies seemed to be greatly bewildered by the flight and hid themselves in the crops and grass during most of the migration.

GLYCESTHA (BELENOIS) JAVA.	JAN.	FEB.	MAR.	APR.	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT	ост.	NOV.	DEC.	MONTH MOT STATED
QUEENSLAND	Ĺ.	<u>.</u> T	(#)						٠,٨			••:	←
Ne w south wales	7 1 7 1									٦	****	*+ ++ ++	
VICTORIA	÷.										77.7	↓ ** *	11
					37			****					

Fig. 37.—Diagram of recorded flights of Glycestha (Belenois) java in Australia.

About 80% of the butterflies were whitish with a darker margin above, and about 15% with much more black above. In addition Mr. Busby recollects red and yellow markings beneath. These were undoubtedly male and female

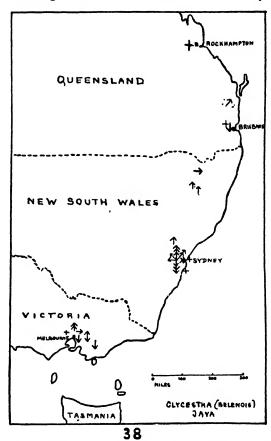


Fig. 38.—Map showing recorded flights of G. java in Australia.

of a Pierid, but it is not possible to say definitely if it was Belenois java or a species of Delias. Mr. Busby (see above) has since seen B. java migrating in Sydney but he thinks that the Liverpool Range butterflies were rather larger.

In the flight also were about 5% of a "swallow tail," which appears from a sketch made at the time to be *Papilio aegeus*, a species that has not previously

been recorded as a migrant.

Alexander (1917) records that java became suddenly abundant in the neighbourhood of Perth, S.W. Australia, in the summer of 1914-1915, together with Papilio demoleus sthenelus, Terias smilax (first time recorded in the S.W.) and incredible numbers of Danaida chrysippus petilia. This is the first indication of migration of any Lepidoptera in the western half of Australia.

Fig. 37 shows diagrammatically all the recorded directional flights of G. java in Australia arranged according to the month in which they occurred. It will be seen that the majority are in November, December and January. The only records between March and September are doubtful, and in fact, the "September" record by Puxley, was in a later account given as "December or January." The period of flight corresponds with the spring season in that part of the world.

Fig. 38 shows the distribution of the flights geographically and one immediately sees the number of records concentrated round the large towns, due to the greater chance of the presence of an interested observer. From the most southerly record in Tasmania to the most northerly at Rockhampton the

distance is about 1200 miles.

(9) Catopsilia florella.

The following records are not included in my 1930 summary for this species.

1925. Stanleyville, Belgian Congo.

Unusually abundant at the beginning of the "strong" rains, but not moving. Ghesquière (1932:301).

1929, Aug. Kadaru, N. of Khartoum, Sudan.

About 50 acres of Senna (Cassia sp.) severely damaged by larvae of C. florella. Bedford (1930, Sudan Ent. Bull. 31: 38).

1932, Jan. 28. Londiani, Kenya. To E.N.E.

With B. mesentina and others in small flight against a fairly steady wind. Graham (Williams 1933b).

1932, April 17. Londiani, Kenya. To N.N.E.
One sent from a migration of B. severina. Graham (Williams 1933b).
1932, June 3-10. Kiminini, Mt. Elgon, Kenya. To S.W. or S.

On 3rd steady flight to S.W.; no wind; 24 in 15 minutes on a 30-yard front. On 4th June to S.W. or S., no wind. On 6th June wind N.E. flight S. From 7th-10th June irregular flow about 1 per minute continued. Moysey (Williams 1933b).

1933, March and April. Londiani, Kenya. To N.N.E.

A few in migration of B. mesentina. Graham (Williams 1935d).

1934, Jan. 3-end. Londiani, Kenya. To N.W. and N.N.W.

On 8th up to 10 on area 30 yards square. Flying fast but a few stopped to feed. Wind steady from N.E. Some rain E. of Londiani but none there. Note that direction of flight is unusual. Graham (Williams 1935d).

1934, March 7-9. Gatooma, S. Rhodesia. To E.

Large number passing high overhead. Reported also 20 miles away. Continued for 3 days, when heavy rainstorm in evening. Next day none. Many other species included in flight. Houston (Williams 1939b).

1934, May 29 June 2. Amani, Tanganyika. To slightly W. of S.

About 10 per min. passing on 100-yard front, with very rapid flight. Moreau (Williams 1935d).

1934, Dec. 24-28. Amani, Tanganyika. To S.E.

Definite migration reported. N.E. wind had started. Flights at this time of year usually to N. Moreau (Williams 1935d).

1935, Jan. 8-17. N.E. Tanganyika. To N.

Flight across Ngorongoro Crater on 8th, a few points W. of N. descending the steep sides of the crater to the bottom. Also strong at Mbulu from 12th-17th, steady and often strong N.E. wind blowing day after day. Moreau (Williams 1935d).

1935, Feb. 6-10. Amani, Tanganyika. To N.

On 10th migration seen from Amani for about 10 miles towards the coast, but not nearer coast than this. Wind strong gusty S.E. Moreau (Williams 1935d).

1935, April 9. Barberton, S. Africa. To E. or N.E. Steady flight against "fresh breeze," of about 20 m.p.h.; 63 seen in 45 min., of which 32 to East. Marshall (Williams 1936a).

1935, Dec. 26-29. Gatooma, S. Rhodesia. To S.E.

Singly or in pairs all day. Against E. or S.E. wind of 1-3 force, fine and bright, flying low. Last rain on 21st December. Peat (Williams 1939b).

1936, April 17. Off Aden. (N.)

One seen about 30 miles E.S.E. of Aden (Moreau mss.).

1936, —. Salisbury, S. Rhodesia. To N.

Seen in flight of B. gidica (Cuthbertson mss.). 1936, Nov. 3-4. Lundari, N. Rhodesia. To E.

Numerous all day. Winterbottom (Williams 1939b).

1936, Nov. 13. Nr. Gatooma, S. Rhodesia. To W.

Flying strongly between Gatooma and Umsweswe, just above ground—widely spaced 10 a.m. to evening. Wind very slight. Rainy season just commenced. Houston (Williams 1939b).

1936, Nov. 29. Fort Jameson, N. Rhodesia. To W. Winterbottom (Williams 1939b).

1936, Dec. 22-Jan. 6, 1937. Umsweswe, S. Rhodesia. To S.E.

On 22nd hundreds flying low with light breeze. On 23rd and 27th greatly increased numbers, then steady decrease. A few only on 6th. Houston (Williams 1939b).

1936, Dec. 26. Fort Jameson, N. Rhodesia. To W. Weather hot. Winterbottom (Williams 1939b).

1937, Feb. 7-18. Barberton, Natal. To N. and E.

Gradually more abundant. On 18th 207 in 15 minutes with 93 to N., 23 to N.E. and 33 to E. Wind gentle E. Marshall (Williams 1939b).

1937, March 22-24. Springs, Transvaal.

Appeared in hundreds with many D. chrysippus. All gone a few days later, but no directional movement noted. C. florella not known to breed in this area (Murray mss.).

1937, Aug. Nairobi, Kenya. To E.

In thin migration with B. mesentina and severina. Rogers (Williams 1939b).

1937, Dec. 17-25. Fort Jameson, N. Rhodesia. To E.N.E. and N.E.

On 17th at Fort Jameson in ones and twos heading N.N.E. almost directly into stiff breeze 9 a.m.-4 p.m., all within few feet of ground. On 19th denser and to N.E. till 2 p.m., when heavy storm (Winterbottom mss.).

1938, Jan. 14-15. Trans-Nzoia, Kenya. To W.

Scores passing 10 a.m.-2 p.m. 6-7 feet above ground. Wind light easterly (Stoneham

1938, Dec. 30-Jan. 15, 1939. S.W. Uganda. To N.

Steady movement over lakes Mutanda and Mulehe throughout the day. Wind steady from N.W. and N.E. Always at least six in sight on lake (Pitman mss.). 1939, April, end. Salisbury, S. Rhodesia. To N.E.

Passing in small numbers in last week in April (Cuthbertson mss.).

Fig. 39 shows diagrammatically the recorded flights according to country and the month of the year.

It will be seen that most of the records are in Kenya and Tanganyika from the end of December to the end of April, with a few in May and June. Farther south the period without flights lengthens and in Transvaal, Natal and the Cape Province there are no flights from mid-April till the end of December.

In Northern and Southern Rhodesia the flights seem to start earlier in November.

Fig. 40 shows rosettes of the recorded flights for each main area. In Kenya and Uganda the majority are to the N. and N.W. In Tanganyika there are flights to N.E. and S., but none to the W. In N. and S. Rhodesia there are

C FLORELLA,	JAN.	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT	OCT.		DEC.	MONTH MOT STATED
ECYPT	+		1	_									
UGANDA	-†							+				t	
KENYA	¢ + 5	1 p	ξ ↑ ↑	774	^ +	4		-				ĸ	
TANGANYIKA	→ ↑ ァ ⁷ 1.1↑				14 .	•	•				→	» 2	
N. RHODESIA										+	↑ 4	47	
S RHODESIA	3		→	7							4	ا ماسار	1
TRANSVAAL	2	۶ ۲	7	7								±1×i1	
DRANCE FREE SF AND BASUTOLAND		-	,										
NATAL		25	1.	7								.£	
CAPE PROVINCE		•-	•										

Fig. 39.—Diagram of recorded flights of Catopsilia florella in Africa.

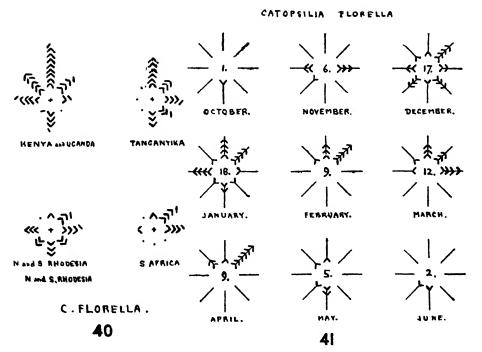


Fig. 40.—Directions of flights of C. florella in different parts of Africa.

Fig. 41.—Direction of flights of C. florella in Africa in different months of the year.

practically no flights to the N. and N.W. (cf. Kenya and Uganda), while in S. Africa nearly all the flights are to the E. and N.E. It is difficult at the present state of our knowledge to suggest any explanation of these curious differences.

Fig. 41 shows the flights arranged according to the month. The majority are from November to April. It is interesting to note that there are no flights recorded with a southerly component during February, March and April. This may be accidental, and more records are needed from all areas before definite conclusions can be drawn.

(10) Andronymus neander.

New Records.

1926, March or April. Amani, Tanganyika. ?.

Big migration flying "in usual direction" (Burt mss.).

1930, March. Malindi, nr. Mombasa, Kenya. To W. by S.

Many hundreds flying more or less down the coast 8-15 feet above ground. Flying swiftly for some hours, little or no wind; about 5 p.m. smaller numbers flying in opposite direction, though still some flew in original direction. Two specimens captured. Graham (Williams 1933b).

1931, Oct. 28. Makimuga, Bwambo, Uganda. To N.

Large swarm flying at average height of 20 feet for one hour, one captured. Hazel (Williams 1933b).

1937, March. Amani, Tanganyika. To S.

Very dense migration for a week or more, 5-10 feet above ground (Nutman mss.).

1939, April. Amani, Tanganyika. To S.E.

Up to 200 per minute in narrow lanes of flight. Forty-two specimens captured (Kirkpatrick mss.).

The above new records together with those already published (Williams 1930b) indicate the very definite movement in March and April through Amani in N.E. Tanganyika, which has already been reported in eight years and probably occurs in most. However, in 1929 when I was in Amani until the 8th April, no trace of a movement had been observed up to that date in spite of a very

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	1. 7.	¥ 23	¥ (2)	¥ c 2 42	\$\frac{1}{2}\display \cdot \frac{1}{2}\display \display \	¥ € Y 42	42	42	42

Fig. 42.—Diagram of recorded flights of Andronymus nearder in East Africa.

close watch. The recorded flights are shown diagrammatically in fig. 42. The only flight in March and April that is not towards the southerly quarter consisted of only a few individuals in a flight of other species; the only flight at another period of the year, in October, is towards the north.

(11) Subfamily ACRAEINAE.

In my previous summary only two species of this subfamily had been recorded as doubtful migrants; Acraea violae, which had twice been seen in small numbers taking part in mixed flights of other species in Ceylon; and A.

andromacha, which had once been recorded in a flight in Queensland.

The ACRAEINAE have neither the habits nor the type of flight that one would associate with long-distance migration but several new records from Africa have now been received that put the occurrence of directional flights in the group beyond doubt, although it is not yet known over what distances they continue. The following records are new.

(1) W. Houston reported (Williams 1939b) that species of Acraea were taking part in a large mixed flight of many species that were moving to the east at Gatooma, Southern Rhodesia, on 7th-9th March 1934. The species were chiefly "Whites and Yellows" (including C. florella) with Danaines, Atella phalantha

and others.

(2) In October 1937 at Trans-Nzoia, Kenya, Lt.-Col. Stoneham reported that Acraea caldarena and A. disjuncta were migrating in large numbers.

During the period 6th-13th October A. caldarena was passing in small numbers always towards the north. They were very swift on the wing and difficult to catch, although flying close to the ground. Specimens of both sexes were captured.

A. disjuncta was moving at the same time but in much larger numbers; "thousands" on the 7th, "hundreds" on the 8th, smaller numbers on the 9th and "hundreds" again on the 10th and 11th, and about 20 on the 13th. The flight direction was less constant, some days to the north and others to the west. The flight was leisurely, some low down and others high over trees. Both sexes were present.

The wind was strong from the north on the 9th, calm on the 10th and 13th

and variable on the other days.

(3) A flight at about the same time was observed by Mrs. M. Tweedie at the Caves of Elgon, Kitale, Kenya. She observed a flight in mid-October 1937; not thick, but one day there were always 3-4 in sight moving steadily to the N.E. against the wind. One specimen was sent which was identified at the Natural History Museum as Acraea jodutta. Mrs. Tweedie adds that she had never noticed this species in the district before or after the flight.

(4) Mr. C. W. Chorley observed two flights of Acraea bonasia, A. acerata and A. terpsichore in S.W. Uganda in March 1940. The first flight was seen on the 14th March at Duma Point, Mawokota, Masumka District, on the west shores of Lake Victoria. The butterflies were coming across the lake from the Sesse district, flying towards the west, a distance of about 28 miles of open water. According to local fishermen they had been passing for two days in countless thousands.

On returning to the Luziro, Kyadondo, Mengo district, about 90 miles from the previous locality, he observed another migration also towards the west, which was also said to have been in progress for two days. Between the two localities no movement was noticed. A number of specimens were sent to Prof. G. D. H. Carpenter, who identified them as above.

(5) Stoneham (1934) records as migrants Acraea melanoxantha (in my reprint changed in mss. by the author to oreas) occasional; A. terpsichore not frequent; A. caccilia a strong migrant some years; A. caldarena very strong but irregular migrant; A. egina local; A. asboloplintha local; A. neobule a strong migrant some years; and A. pharsalus some years; but no details are given of any records in support of the above statements.

VII. EXPERIMENTS IN MARKING BUTTERFLIES.

By G. F. COCKBILL.

It has been realised by many workers that if migrant butterflies were suitably marked at some point on their route, and recaptured at some other point, much useful information would be forthcoming as to direction and speed of flight. Such marking experiments have been carried out with success with migrant birds, but, as yet, little progress has been made in the case of insects.

Marking experiments can yield two distinct kinds of evidence. If insects are marked and subsequently recovered at a distance from the locality of liberation, there is direct evidence of speed and direction of flight. This information is the most valuable, but the most difficult to obtain. The only case of a recovery at a distance known to the writer is that of a V. atalanta, marked at Stroud, Glos., by T. B. Fletcher and later believed to have been seen again at Reading, Berks. However, the observer could not get near enough to see the identification number of the insect. (Fletcher in litt.)

Information can also be obtained by noting the rates at which marked individuals of different species disappear from a locality. It is assumed that migrant species move away from a locality more rapidly than do non-migrants.

It is necessary to devise a method of marking the insect in such a way as to render it very noticeable, and to provide an identification number together with a well-known address to which information concerning recapture can be sent. The marking should be carried out on a large scale by a team of workers in areas where migrant species are most frequently and abundantly observed, and collectors should operate in areas situated concentrically around the area of marking.

Previous methods of marking Lepidoptera.

Various methods of marking have been used. Meder (1926) used a 0.8% alcoholic solution of ruby and scarlet dyes with a little shellac added. He marked the upper surface of the fore-wing with spots to denote the date of liberation and the under surface of the hind-wing with a mark to identify the locality of liberation. Of four to five thousand Pierid butterflies marked and liberated in July 1925, only five were recovered: four at Kiel and one at Lübeck.

Collins and Potts (1932) used aniline dyes mixed with 70% alcohol, and also artist's paints thinned with petrol, applied by means of a camel-hair brush for marking male Gipsy moths, *Lymantria dispar* L., when investigating the rate of spread of the pest in the U.S.A.

O. Querci (1936) records that in December 1929 at Cristo, near Santiago of Cuba, he marked a large number of butterflies by clipping their wings in various ways to verify that some underwent aestivation. He obtained recoveries

as long after marking as June and August of the following year.

T. B. Fletcher (1936) attached small labels to the wings of butterflies by means of Canada Balsam, after removing a small patch of scales. His method of labelling was to use R for Rodborough, Stroud, Glos., England, where the insects were marked, and a series number to identify the specimen. He kept a descriptive record of each insect he marked.

During the season 1936 he marked 75 butterflies. One V. cardui remained at Rodborough for 10 days after marking, six V. atalanta for 2 or 3 days, one for

7 days and one for 12 days.

In 1938, he continued marking V. atalanta. His results are summarised

later (p. 224).

In 1936, at Rothamsted Experimental Station, Mrs. K. Grant marked over 300 V. urticae by means of spots of coloured enamel paints placed on different parts of the insect. She reserved a special mark for each day when marking took place, but used no distinguishing mark for each insect.

Mr. D. A. Christianson of Hinckley, Minnesota, writes that during 1936 and 1937 he had marked 208 butterflies, mostly Monarchs, with serial numbers. His method was to attach to the thorax a thin cellophane label having a serial number, together with his box number and address. He says that the printing on the label was "so small as to be scarcely legible." He attached the labels

by coating them with the adhesive from zinc oxide plaster.

Later he improved on his method by using as labels thin strips of metal foil in various bright colours. He was able to print on these labels in water-proof Indian Ink, or to die-stamp them. His method might be of use with the larger butterflies such as the Monarch, but we found on experiment at Rothamsted that the metal foil interfered with the flight of butterflies even as large as the Cabbage Whites.

Spots of coloured cellulose paints, arranged according to a key, were used by G. A. Brett in marking Vanessid butterflies in 1938. Each day had a special mark. He has kindly sent the results of his experiment to Rothamsted for inclusion and they will be discussed later. Here, again, individuals marked on one day were indistinguishable from one another.

W. F. Smith reports that he cut notches in the wings of several Monarch butterflies at Englewood, Fla., and recaptured four, one of which had been marked

11 days previously.

Since this section was written, Urquhart (1941) has described a method he has used in marking Monarch butterflies in Canada. A small hole, about $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch in diameter, was punched with a paper punch, through the right forewing near the base and immediately behind the stout radial vein. The label, made of light paper gummed on one side, was bent over the front margin of the wing and glued to itself through the hole. It took only 15 seconds to punch the hole in this way and apply the label.

A further marking method.

After several tests with various labels and adhesives, the following method was found to be the most suitable for the purpose.

It was the combination of a label bearing a serial identification number and a well-known address attached to one wing with a plainly visible coloured mark on the other wing. It was considered that the address "London Zoo" was the best-known address with a conveniently short title, and the Zoological Society of London kindly agreed to its use and to co-operate in the scheme by sending us any information of recaptures that they might receive.

The address and number were written in waterproof Indian Ink, in mirror writing on labels cut from thin cellophane. The label was smeared on the written side with "Durofix" thinned with amyl acetate, and attached to one fore-wing of the insect. The other fore-wing was marked by applying with a nacetal ir brush an alcoholic solution of basic fuchsin for white butterflies, and with a quick-drying white paint for the dark-winged species. An assortment of marks was obtained from the letters of the alphabet or from simple geometric designs, keeping a separate mark for each species on each day. The label and mark dried within a few seconds.

After a little practice it was possible to hold the insect with the first finger over the thorax and the thumb and second finger underneath, so that the wings were outstretched, allowing easy application of the label and mark. If the labels were written beforehand, the marking took only a few seconds for each insect.

After being marked, the insects were liberated, and the time, date, number,

identification mark and species were card indexed.

All particulars of any recoveries were noted. During 1939 just over 400 butterflies were marked. Most of the butterflies were liberated at Rothamsted Experimental Station, but some batches were liberated from points situated about 1½ miles due north and due east of the Station on the chance that they would reappear in the neighbourhood of Rothamsted, thereby giving information of speed and direction of flight. However, none of these latter was recaptured.

The results of marking experiments at Rothamsted and elsewhere.

The total number of insects marked at Rothamsted in 1939 was 403, including the species *Pieris brassicae*, *P. rapae*, *P. napi*, *Vanessa io* and *V. urticae*. Of these 403, only 23 or 5% were recovered in the neighbourhood.

TABLE 25.	
Recovery of butterflies marked at Harpenden in 1939	

Species	Total marked		otal vered		N	o. recov	ered	afte	r dag		
	marked	No.	%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 and over
P. rapae P. brassicae . P. napi	254 117 23 6 3	17 1 1 3 1	8 0.9 4 50 33	5 0 0 1	9 0 1 2 0	1 + (1 1 0 0 1) 1 0 0 0 0	2 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	1 0 0 0

In Table 25 the number and percentage recoveries are indicated, together with the number of recaptures after 1 to 8 days. It will be seen that there were more recoveries of *P. rapae* and *P. napi*, and far more of *V. io*, and *V. urticae* than of *P. brassicae*.

The numbers printed in brackets indicate that there is a doubt about the identity of the specimen (e.g. an observer noticed the mark on the insect, but not the number).

The numbers are too small to yield much real information, but if anything is shown, it is that during the experiment *P. brassicae* was moving out of the district more rapidly than *P. rapae*. This experiment, while not intended to demonstrate that *P. brassicae* was migrating, certainly lends support to this view.

Table 26A shows the results obtained by Fletcher in 1938. Here 101 V atalanta were marked, and 25 different insects were recovered, i.e. 25%, combined which more than half were not seen later than 2 days after marking. There is an indication that the butterflies were moving away from the locality of marking and that marked individuals were constantly replaced by fresh arrivals.

In the same table, the analyses of the experiments of K. Grant (B) and G. Brett (C) respectively are given. It is unfortunate that in both of these there was no provision made for identifying the individual insect. All individuals of a species marked on the same day received the same mark. This omission considerably detracts from the available information, since it leaves it an open question whether subsequent observations of insects on any particular day are to be regarded as being the same insect or as different insects.

Table 26.

Recovery of marked butterflies:—A, by T. B. Fletcher at Stroud in 1938. B, by K. Grant at Harpenden in 1936. C, by G. Brett at Esher in 1938.

]	Reco	verie	3								
Observer and species	Total marked	M	ax.	M	in.		R	ecov	ered	afte	r da	ys:	*
		No.	%	No.	%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 and over
(A) T. B. Fletcher V. atalanta (B) K. Grant	. 101	25	25	25	25	10	6	6	4	4	3	2	6
A. urticae	. 329	115	35	8	2.5	47	26	16	20	13	5	2	2+(1)
(C) G. Brett V. atalanta	. 141	14	10	8	6	7	0	3	2	0	1	2	3
A. urticae	. 77	35	45	13	17	17	9	5	2 3	0	1	0	3
N.~io	. 37	12	32	6	16	7	5	1	1	0	0	0	1
V. cardui	. 6	0		0									
$V.\ c$ -album	. 16	9	64	4	29	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	0

In the case of K. Grant's experiment on marking V. urticae, 32 individuals were marked on 14th September 1936 with a yellow paint spot at the base of the right fore-wing. The results show that the numbers and dates of recapture are as follows:—

On September	14th	32	marked.	
,,				and released.
,,	16th	8	,,	,,
,,	17th	6	,,	,,
,,	18th	5	,,	,,
,,	19th	3	,,	••
,,	20 th	2	,,	,,
••	22nd	1	••	••

Since there was no distinction made between individuals, the records of recovery on any day may all relate to the same or to different individuals. The "maximum recoveries" would be arrived at by assuming that all records refer to different individuals, while the "minimum recoveries" would be those when it is assumed that only one individual of any batch marked was recovered. Both possibilities are considered in Table 26, where the maximum and minimum number and percentage recovery are shown.

It will be seen that the total recaptures from any batch marked may possibly be equal to, but cannot exceed, the number marked. Any recaptures in excess of the number marked each day have been disregarded in obtaining

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the "maximum recaptures," but the figures for the "recaptures after 1 to 8 days" include all recaptures. When all recoveries are regarded as being different insects, there are 35% recaptures, but when only one recapture is allowed for any day's marking, the percentage recapture is only 2.5%. The real value lies somewhere between these two, but the range is too great for the results to be of much significance.

This same wide variation between the percentage recaptures is seen in the

cases of A. urticae, N. io and V. c-album marked by Brett (Table 26, C).

In the case of V. atalanta, however, there were at most only six insects which may have been seen on more than one occasion. The percentage recovery

lies between 10% and 6%, and is the lowest of the species concerned.

It is doubtful whether Brett's figures are significant after allowance is made for the possibility of recapturing the same insect more than once, but if anything is shown, it is that V. atalanta and V. cardui have moved away from the area of marking faster than the other species.

VIII. THE PROBLEM OF ORIENTATION.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

The problem of the method by which migrating insects determine the direction of their flights, and keep to a fixed direction over long distances and over long periods of time (sometimes many weeks) still remains unsolved and still remains one of the most fundamental questions in the study of migration.

One would expect some external guiding force or stimulus to be concerned in this direction determination, and so far the most frequently suggested possible

stimuli are wind, light and the earth's magnetic field.

It is proposed to discuss the problem from the following point of view:--

(1) Is the structure of the wind such that it would be possible for an insect flying in the current to determine the direction of the wind from perception of pressure alone?

(2) If this is so, what evidence is there that insects are conscious of and allow

for the influence of the wind direction?

(3) What new evidence is there on the relation of the wind to the direction of the migrating flights?

(4) Could the orientation be determined by any other method, and in

particular by (a) sight or (b) the magnetic field.

Before entering on a discussion of the "wind" problem it will be interesting to bring forward an observation made by Mr. V. C. Carr on a definite double change in direction in a flight of Monarch butterflies (*D. plexippus*) with no apparent obstacle to account for it, and which appears at present quite inexplicable on any theory.

He writes, "In September 1935 I was fishing in Port Bay, a part of Lake Ontario on the south shore about 50 miles east of Rochester. On looking up I noticed a flight of Monarchs going south, flying about 60 feet above the water and 100 feet from land. A short distance to the south of me they made a sharp left turn, crossed the bay (about a quarter of a mile), then made a right turn

and headed south again.

"At no time was there a massed flight nor did they extend over a space of more than 10 to 12 feet in width. At times I would say one or two thousand passed, and again only a hundred or so. Then there would be breaks in the flight for a short time. I anchored my boat under both of the turning points, and turns

were made at the same two places all day. The flight stopped about an hour before dusk. The butterflies moved quite fast; I would estimate about 15 miles per hour."

Mr. Carr sent a sketch map of the locality which is reproduced in fig. 43.

The interest of the observation is great but at present it does not seem possible to suggest any reason for the change in direction or how to account for butterflies passing in the late afternoon changing direction at the same spot as those which passed many hours before.

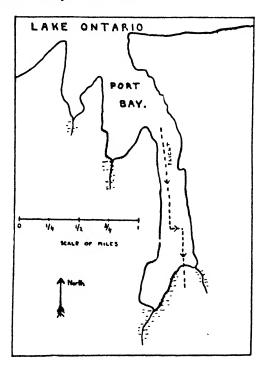


Fig. 43.—Map of flight of D. plexippus in the south of Lake Ontario, with a double change of direction.

Wind structure and its possible effect on orientation and migration.

In my book on migration (Williams 1930: 382) I discussed the problem of the effect of wind on an insect flying in a moving air current, and to what extent an insect might be able to determine the direction of the wind from the variations in pressure which it feels.

Very briefly, the conclusions I then came to were as follows:—(1) In an absolutely steady wind an insect (or bird) would be unable to determine the direction of the current. This is of theoretical interest only since winds are never steady. (2) In the practical case of an unsteady wind the insect would feel pressure on different parts of its body according to the acceleration (positive or negative) of the wind, because, owing to inertia of the insect, there would always be an appreciable time-lag between the change of velocity of the wind

and that of the insect. From these pressures, however, the insect would only be able to determine the general direction of the wind if (a) changes in velocity of the wind (i.e. gusts) were more frequent in the direction of the wind than across it; and if (b) the gusts were asymmetrical, either rising more suddenly and dying away more gradually, or vice versa.

At the time of writing, these two ideas were contrary to the generally accepted theory of wind structure which, according to Taylor's Law, required that "excursions of the wind from uniform stream motion are similar in all directions." In other words, if one subtracted the mean velocity from a stream of air the residual motion of the particles would be backwards and forwards, up and down, and right and left, in equal proportion. There was, however, even then, a little meteorological evidence to throw doubt on the universal application of this law.

Since that time further experimental work has been carried out by the Meteorological Office, and in 1932 Giblett and Durst published a report on the wind structure as observed over flat land at Cardington in England, which shows that under certain conditions of air temperature both the conditions

(a) and (b) may occur.

They came to the conclusion that, superimposed on the main stream-line

motion of the wind, there are two kinds of changes :--

(1) Gusts and lulls which occur more frequently in the direction of the wind stream and which are asymmetrical, the wind rising rapidly to a maximum and falling more slowly to a lull. These are believed to be due to convectional eddies.

(2) Many smaller irregular oscillations, due apparently to frictional eddies, which are as likely to be in one direction as another, and so obey "Taylor's law"

The first type of variation occurs when the temperature gradient is adiabatic or super-adiabatic. That is to say, when the air temperature gets colder as we rise from the ground as rapidly as, or more rapidly than, can be accounted for by normal expansion (about 5.5° F. per 1000 feet).

When the temperature gradient is sub-adiabatic, and particularly when the gradient is reversed (i.e., warmer air above), convectional currents cannot take

place and therefore only the small irregular oscillations are found.

Adiabatic and super-adiabatic conditions most frequently occur during the daytime when the ground is heated by the sun's rays. In rough country with many obstructions, and in hilly country, the frictional eddies may greatly overshadow any convectional eddies.

The alternating development of gust and lull due to convection are of much longer duration than the small frictional eddies. The average convectional cell, the passing of which starts with the gust and ends with the lull, is, according to Durst, of the order of 3000-8000 feet, say a half to one and a half miles, in length. The passing of this may occupy several minutes. Fig. 44 shows part of one of the records from Giblet and Durst for such a gust and it will be seen that the gust occupied about twelve seconds with air accelerations up to about two feet per second² while the fall to the lull occupied several minutes and the retardations were of the order of 0.12 per second² or less than one-tenth of the force of the gust.

Given such conditions, an insect would be subjected to a pressure from the direction from which the wind is blowing during the sudden advent of a gust, and a much weaker pressure on the opposite side as the gust dies away.

It is important to note that the above discussion has only shown that it

might be possible for an insect or bird to determine, from the pressure which it feels, the direction of the wind in which it is flying; but not that it does so.

Acworth (1929) has discussed at some length the effect of wind on flying birds, but his results are of little practical importance as he deals only with an absolutely uniform wind movement, and so comes to the conclusion that the

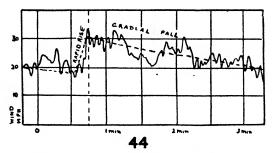


Fig. 44.—Wind changes during the advent and passing away of a gust due to convectional eddy. After Giblett and Durst 1932.

flying bird or insect is not merely unable to tell (except by observing the drift) in which direction the wind is blowing, but even if there is a wind at all.

According to Acworth, if a bird wishes to fly from a point A to a point B with a cross wind (fig. 45), it is unable to appreciate the presence of the cross wind

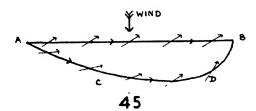


Fig. 45.—Direction of flight of an insect across the wind from point A to point B, to illustrate Acworth's theory.

except by the fact that it is moved sideways relative to the relatively distant goal towards which it is flying and towards which it always heads in a straight line. As a result it takes a curved course A C D B and always arrives at B facing the wind. If, however, it could appreciate the wind direction it could allow for it at any moment by flying slightly skew to the desired direction, in which case the bird (or insect) would fly from A to B in a straight line.

On Acworth's theory, if a bird were flying to the north in still air and a side wind arose, the bird would be unconscious of this and would continue for some period at least to face the north and to fly through the air in the same direction and speed as before. Its speed and direction relative to the ground would therefore be the resultant of its old speed and that of the wind as shown in fig. 46, A and B, where the insect is presumed to be facing north with a wind from the west, of velocity equal to two-thirds of the speed of the insect. From an observer on the ground the insect would appear to continue to face to the north but to fly diagonally in a new direction (east of north) and also slightly faster (but this latter might be difficult to observe).

If, on the contrary, the insect were conscious of the wind direction and wished to continue to fly to the north it could do so by facing slightly to the west into the wind (fig. 46, C and D). In this case, from the point of view of an observer on the ground, the insect would on the advent of a side wind alter its body line slightly but continue to fly in exactly the same direction as before although at a slightly lower speed (though again this might be difficult to observe). In each case the insect during a wind will be moving (relative to the ground) at an angle to the line of its body, but in the first case the axis of the body will remain constant although the flight direction will alter with each change of the wind; while in the second its ground direction will remain unaltered but the axis line of the body will alter with each change of the wind.

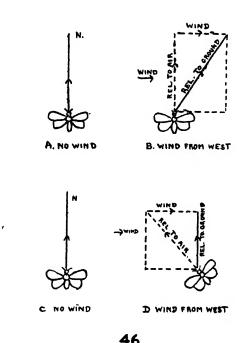


Fig. 46.—Diagram of two possible reactions of a flying insect to a side wind.

I have myself observed exactly the last condition in locusts in East Africa in 1928. In my report on the observations (Williams 1933c) I said, "At times it was obvious on close observation that the locusts were turning their bodies at an angle to the line of flight when the wind blew strongly. Thus, on 29th November at Voi [Kenya] I noted that when there was no wind the locusts were flying to the N.E. with their heads facing in this direction; when, however, the rather gusty wind blew from the S.E. the locusts' heads turned approximately to the east, although their motion relative to the ground remained the same."

In the case of these locusts it must be recognised that they were flying from 4 to 8 feet above the ground and so the possibility of visual observation of the sideways drift is not ruled out. It is difficult, however, to suggest what features of the rough ground beneath them could be used as "sighting points" to keep a constant line of flight.

Mr. P. R. Gleason also has observed butterflies flying at an angle to the wind as if to allow for its influence, in a manner quite similar to my own observation on locusts, during a thin movement towards the east of an unidentified Hesperiid butterfly in New Mexico, U.S.A., in March 1940. The wind was strong and variable, sometimes from the east and at other times from the south-east or south.

He writes: "I wish to mention another peculiarity of the flight which was different from anything I have seen before. When the wind was at a maximum from the south and the insects were travelling straight across it, they faced towards the S.E. as if to avoid being blown to the north of the point they meant to reach. The forward motion, quartering against the wind, drove them straight east, i.e. as if they were really headed E. instead of S.E. and no wind was blowing."

The possible effect of wind direction on the density of flights and their frequency of observation.

If a flight of butterflies 2 miles long were moving at a speed of 10 miles per hour in still air it would take 12 minutes to pass any fixed observation post. If this flight passes, as at A in fig. 47, into an area of contrary wind at 5 m.p.h. (so that the insects only move forward with a ground speed of 5 m.p.h.) the front butterflies will have passed only one mile into the new area before the last

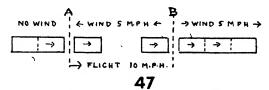


Fig. 47.—Effect of head and tail wind on the speed of a flight and the time taken to pass an observation point.

butterflies have left the old; in other words, the flight will be compressed so as to be only one mile long. But since it is only moving at half the speed it will take twelve minutes to pass an observation point.

If, as at B, it now passes into an area of following wind of 5 m.p.h. it will move forward at a ground speed of 15 m.p.h. and the first butterflies will have flown 3 miles before the rearguard has left the old area, *i.e.* the flight will now be three miles long. It will, however, still take exactly twelve minutes to pass an observation point.

In other words, unless there is deliberate spacing by the insect, the length of the flight from front to rear is directly proportional to the ground speed of the flight, in so far as this is affected by wind; but the length of time taken to pass is the same for all directions and force of the wind, and so the same number of insects will pass any observation point in the same time.

Therefore observations taken on the number of flights (or of insects) that pass a given observation line across the flight in a given period are independent on the force or direction of the wind.

If, however, an attempt is made to estimate the number of insects in a flight by counting those at any moment in a given area, or in a given line in the direction of the flight, the result will be affected by the changes in speed of the

wind and will show a greater apparent density when the insects are flying slowly against the wind than when flying quickly with it.

A similar problem, and perhaps more easy to understand, arises if a number of cyclists start at regular intervals of say 15 seconds to cycle up a hill and down the other side. After a short period their distribution will be shown as in fig. 48.



Fig. 48.—Diagram to illustrate analogy of cyclists moving up and down hill with effect of wind on an insect migration.

The number of cyclists on any given length of road will be greater on the uphill at A and fewer on the downhill at B; but the number passing A per fixed time will be exactly the same as at B, i.e. four per minute.

Thus if one wishes to compare the frequency or density of different flights

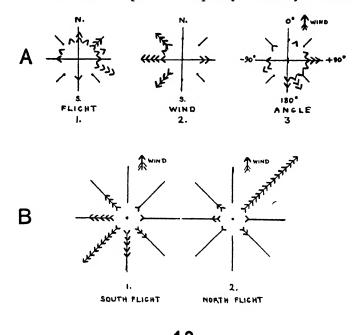


Fig. 49.—Diagrams showing false apparent effect of wind on direction of migration:—

A. Locusts in East Africa; B. A. monuste in Florida.

of insects it is important to measure the number crossing a fixed line, at right angles to the flight, per specified time; and not the number present on a specified area at any one moment.

It follows that in any area where there is no prevailing wind, observations of flights will be equally frequent with the wind, against it and across it in

either direction, unless the insects composing the flight exert a choice. If, therefore, the records are not so distributed, the discrepancy can be explained either by (A) that there is a tendency for the insects to fly with some definite relation to the wind direction, or (B) that the records suffer from some personal error, such as a tendency for observers to be more likely to note the wind if it is against or with the flight than if it is across, as has already been discussed in a previous paper (Williams 1930b).

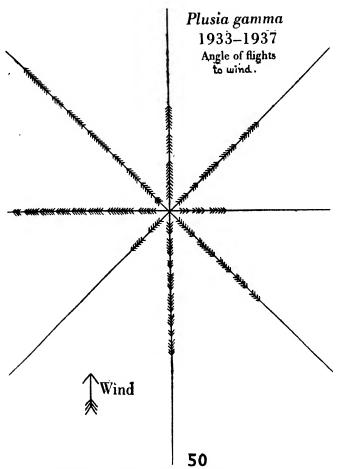


Fig. 50.—Angle between direction of flight and direction of wind on a number of flights of *Plusia gamma*.

It must be noted that if in any district there is a prevailing wind, and also a more or less regular direction of migration, an apparent relation between wind direction and flight is bound to appear although it will be no evidence of cause and effect.

One example of this has been given in connection with locust flights in East Africa in Williams (1933c) where, out of 16 flights, the wind was towards the N.W. or S.W. in fourteen, and the flights were nearly all towards the N.E., E. and

S.E. As a result (fig. 49, A) there is a preponderance of flights more or less against the wind, but as neither all possible flight directions nor all possible

wind directions occurred one cannot draw any conclusion.

An even more interesting example comes from the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges on the migration of Ascia monuste in Florida (see p. 143). At the point of observation in Melbourne, Fla., the wind was more frequently from the east and south-east than any other direction. From the 18th March to the 16th May 1938, A. monuste was migrating steadily to the south and the relation of these flights to the wind is shown in fig. 49, B 1, from which it might be inferred that there was a definite tendency for the insect to fly into the wind and at a slight angle to it. However, on the 18th May the insect reversed the direction of its flight and flew from that date until the end of June towards the north, and the relation of its flight direction to that of the wind is shown in fig. 49, B 2, exactly the opposite from the previous conditions. In fact, there is no possible inference from these data except that the direction of the flight of the butterfly is determined quite independently of the direction of the wind.

I have already brought forward evidence (Williams 1930b: 368) that there is little or no relation between the general direction of flights and the direction of the wind. Since then other studies have always given the same result.

In 1938 Mrs. Grant showed that in a number of flights of *Plusia gamma* in Britain from 1933 and 1937 the direction of flight was at all angles to the wind, without any preponderance either with, against or across. Her figure is reproduced in fig. 50.

Again in this report on p. 194 there is an account of a flight of *Pieris brassicae* in Harpenden, England, that lasted for three weeks. The wind on successive days ranged almost all round the compass without any alteration in the direction

of the flight.

There are also, of course, many records of quite definite flights during periods of dead calm when any orientation by the wind would be impossible.

One must therefore conclude:—(1) that the structure of the wind might allow the insect to determine the wind direction from pressure alone; (2) that there is evidence from the orientation of individuals flying in a cross wind that they do appreciate and allow for wind direction, though whether this is done by vision or by pressure perception is not yet certain; (3) in spite of the above there is still no evidence that the wind direction determines the direction of any migratory flight. Very occasionally the direction may be slightly diverted by a strong side wind, but the main flight direction is quite independent of wind changes.

The possible influence of light and sight on orientation.

In my previous summary I discussed very briefly the possibility of orientation during migration being based on the direction of the light, such as the sun's rays, and came to the conclusion that this was unlikely. Firstly because migration may occur in cloudy weather with a diffuse light; secondly because it can take place at midday in the tropics when the sun is overhead, and so could not give any definite indication of horizontal direction; and thirdly because many migrations take place at night and without even the moon.

Since this was written much more has become known about the general orientation of insects by the direction of light rays, and a good summary has been recently given by Fraenkel and Gunn (1940). They call the reaction the "light-compass-reaction" and give a number of examples. All the above

objections still hold, however, against it being considered as the basic determination of the direction of migration.

When one has seen a migration continue steadily in one almost compasstrue direction for several weeks on end, at all times of the day and in all weathers except perhaps heavy rain, it is difficult to believe that the direction of the sun's rays can have any importance. The insect would have to allow hour by hour

for the changing direction of the rays.

One point of interest here is the effect of fog which would give an almost completely diffuse illumination. The evidence is contradictory (Williams 1930b: 388). Evershed states that in south India the butterflies turned back on reaching a fog bank but returned again and again to the edge of the wall of fog. Moreau in East Africa, on the contrary, records that a migration of G. aurota "continued on an afternoon of thick mist when you could not see ten yards in front of you." Undoubtedly, even the presence of thick fog does not necessarily interfere with the sense of direction.

Quite recently Kennedy has carried out experiments on flying insects in relation to the apparent movement of the ground. He finds (Kennedy 1940) that mosquitoes when flying quite close to the ground tend to orientate themselves (particularly in relation to wind) so that (1) the ground never moves from back to front relative to the insect, and (2) the image moves across the retina as slowly as possible—or at least they avoid any condition that proproduces a movement of the image above a critical velocity.

As a result of these conditions a mosquito never flies against a head wind unless it can fly faster than the wind and so make progress up wind; and it avoids flying with a strong tail wind as this increases to above the limit the velocity of its speed relative to the ground and hence the rate of movement of the image on the retina. The insect when near the ground therefore tends to fly against light winds and to alight if they become too strong for it to make headway relative to the ground.

All these experiments have been done with the mosquitoes within a few centimetres of the ground, and it is difficult to say how they would apply to an insect several feet or, still more, a hundred feet or so in the air when the movement of the image of the ground on the retina would be very much slower.

If insects are not guided by wind or by the magnetic field (see below), the most obvious thing left is vision, and this would be likely to be carried out by some form of "sighting" or by the movement of the retinal image. At the present moment, however, one is still far from being in a position to see a solution. Experiments must be carried out in the field to test such possibilities on migrating insects. Such tests might well be carried out at the Research Station at Amani in Tanganyika where flights occur quite frequently and at regular seasons. It should be noted that if an insect is flying in a wind current, the movement of the insect relative to the ground (and hence the movement of the retinal image of the ground in the insect's eye) will not be parallel to the axis of the insect's body on either of the theories of wind orientation discussed on p. 230 unless the insect is flying directly with or directly against the wind.

An observation of my own which might be referred to here in connection with Kennedy's work is that in East Africa in 1928 I saw locusts (recently emerged adults) flying fast with a fairly strong breeze at a height of 10-15 feet above the ground, but lower down at 1-6 feet all were flying in the opposite direction against the wind. All the time hundreds were rising from the lower lawer or dropping to it, and all immediately changed their direction as they

changed their level (Williams 1933c). This would undoubtedly result in the retinal image moving more slowly, as when they were near the ground their ground speed was at its minimum, and when they were farthest away it was at its maximum.

It is perhaps also worth recording again in this connection that about the same time I saw large numbers of locusts making a steady flight near the ground and all the locusts at rest on the ground were orientated in the same direction as those flying above. It is interesting to note that these locusts on the ground would see objects above them moving from rear to front. This is the condition that Kennedy says is avoided by mosquitoes, for objects below them. Is the difference in the position of the moving objects or in the behaviour of the two insects?

Experiment on the influence of the magnetic field.

By G. F. COCKBILL.

Recorders of the phenomenon of prolonged unidirectional flights of butterflies have at times outlined the possible stimuli that could produce such reactions in the insect. They reasoned along the lines that a steady unidirectional flight would require a constant and prolonged stimulus, such as might be provided by the earth's magnetic field. The assumption has several times been made that the insect can appreciate and respond to this stimulus.

Such writers have either made the suggestion as an interesting speculation or have selected scant evidence to support their views. Thus Ghesquière (1932b) mentions "le sens physiologique de l'orientation magnetique" in surveying the factors concerned in insect migration; Mary (1921) suggests that the sense of magnetic orientation would be a manifestation of unilateral electrical stimulation, while Lakhovsky (1931) even invokes the cosmic rays.

On the other hand, depending on direct observation, Lenz (1931) goes so far as to suggest that the predominantly north-north-westerly flights of butterflies that he observed in northern Germany were to be explained on the grounds that as the magnetic North Pole was some distance to the west of the true North Pole, the insects were accommodating themselves to the earth's magnetic field.

The only experiments carried out on migrating animals to investigate the effect of the earth's magnetic field, as far as the writer is aware, have been those of Wodzicki, Puchalski and Liche (1939). These workers were considering the factors which determine the migration of storks. They caught twelve storks near Lwow, Poland, and sent four to Lisbon, four to Berlin and four to Harviala in Finland. In each group, three storks each had a bar magnet attached to its head, several times stronger than the earth's field "calculated according to Gauss' formula." The fourth stork of each group was used as a control. It was presumed that the presence of the bar magnet, "according to Stresemann's hypothesis, would eliminate the influence of the earth's field "on the birds.

The experiment did not give satisfactory results owing to the small numbers of birds used and also to the very unfavourable meteorological conditions in the

latter part of June 1938, when the experiment took place.

No storks returned from Lisbon; three returned from Berlin, including two with the magnets attached to their heads, although their flight was slower than normal; while of the four from Finland, two died, and the remaining two stayed near the place where they were liberated.

This method of investigation would not be practical in insects. On the other

hand, because of their small size, insects can be subjected to a controlled environment without much difficulty.

Although it was not thought probable that positive evidence would result, it was considered necessary to carry out some experiments.

The following experiment was designed to compare the movements of nymphal locusts when subjected to a powerful magnetic field with those under normal conditions, and to decide whether the insects under experiment possessed any mechanism for appreciating and orientating themselves in relation to the poles of a strong magnetic field.

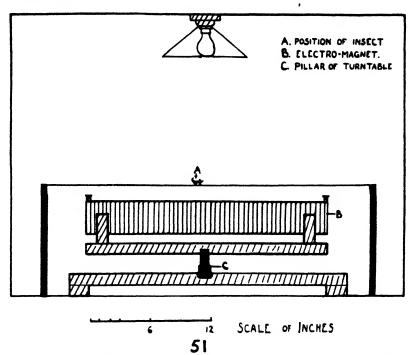


Fig. 51.—Apparatus for testing the effect of a strong magnetic field on insect orientation. Lateral view.

Apparatus and method.

The apparatus, fig. 51, consisted essentially of an electromagnet made from a transformer coil, supplied with 100 volts D.C., and placed centrally beneath a circular paper platform on which the insects were liberated.

The electromagnet was supported on a turntable which allowed it to be rotated through 180°. A reversing switch was included in the circuit, so that by rotating the magnet through 180° and using the switch, the poles of the magnet could be made to take up any position in the circle.

The entire apparatus was enclosed within an almost lightproof chamber, made of wood laths and brown paper. A flap was left in one side to allow the insects to be deposited on and taken from the platform. From the roof of the chamber hung a 60-watt electric lamp which evenly illuminated the paper platform beneath.

The room in which the experiment was conducted had a northern aspect,

and consequently was not subjected to very great daily range of temperature and humidity. Moreover, since each trial lasted only a few minutes, the fluctuations of temperature and humidity during that time were too small to be regarded as interfering with the experiment.

The platform on which the insects were liberated was divided into quadrants. The quadrant lying between N.E. and N.W. was designated North; that lying between N.W. and S.W. was designated West; that lying between S.W. and S.E. was designated South; that between S.E. and N.E. was designated East.

Although the chamber was not completely lightproof, the intensity of the internal electric light was greater than that of the diffused light of the room, and as a result, the electric light was the only effective illumination within the chamber. There was no horizontal illumination gradient.

The insects found to be most suitable for the experiment were those which

were fairly active.

To test the reaction of the insects to the apparatus without any current flowing, a locust nymph (Schistocerca gregaria), measuring about $\frac{3}{4}$ " long, was liberated in the centre of the platform facing N. It was free to wander over the platform until it reached the edge, when it was collected, and its final position was noted. It was then replaced in the centre facing another direction. The insect was liberated 20 times facing each of the directions N., S., E. and W. In half the trials, the insect was introduced from the W. side, and in half from the E. side, lest the insect be influenced by the mode of entry.

Results.

Table 29 shows the results of the experiment. When the insect was started facing North, it finished up facing North in 16 cases, facing East in 3 cases, and facing West in 1 case.

TABLE 27.

Control experiment to test the response of a Locust nymph to the apparatus for testing reactions to a magnetic field, when no current was flowing.

	Fi N.	nal di S.	rection E.	n: W.	Total
Initial direction: AESA	16 2	17 3 10	3 13	1 3 2 10	20 20 20 20 20
Total .	18	30	16	16	80
χ²	0.2	5.0	0.8	0.8	6.8

When it was started facing South, it finished up facing South in 17 cases and West in 3 cases.

When it was started facing East, it finished up facing North in 2 cases, South in 3, East in 13 and West in 2 cases.

Finally, when it was started facing West, it finished up facing South in 10 cases and West in 10.

The final directions were:—North 18, South 30, East 16, West 16: total 80. Despite the somewhat large value for χ^2 in the column "Final Direction South," the total χ^2 of 6.8 is not significant even at the 0.05 level.

It appears then that when the initial directions were evenly distributed the final directions were also evenly distributed, and that the insect tended to continue moving in the direction in which it was started.

In the second experiment, four similar locust nymphs were liberated simultaneously from a glass tube in the centre of the platform. They were free to move to the edge of the platform, where their final position was noted. There were 40 trials with the current off, and 80 trials with the current on, i.e. 20 trials with the N. Pole of the magnet pointing in the direction of each of the four cardinal points of the compass. This number of trials allowed for an even distribution of the initial direction of the insects. The results and summary are shown in Table 28.

TABLE 28. • Direction of movement of Locust nymphs in a magnetic field.

			Cuen	ent off											Curr	ent c	n						
			Oui	out ou				N	. Pol	le to	N.	N	. Po	le to	s.	N.	. Pol	e to	E.	N	. Pol	e to	w.
N.	8.	E.	w.	N.	8.	E.	w.	N.	ន.	E.	w.	N.	8.	B.	w.	N.	8.	E.	w.	N.	. 8.	E.	W
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2	2		0	U	2	1	1	1	U	3	U	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2
28	18	11	23	14	23	25	18	20	21	24	15	20	30	16	14	14	25	13	28	13	28	22	17
		2	N.	8.	E.		w.					N	7.	8			E.		W.				
Ave	rage	. 2	1	21	18		20	1				2	0	2.	75		19		18-2	5			
zª			0.1	0.03	0.	4	0.03						0	1.	5		0.2		0.6	1			

Discussion.

From the experiment no evidence was forthcoming to suggest that these insects did appreciate or orientate themselves in relation to a magnetic field. If the insects could appreciate and respond to the effect of the magnetic N. Pole, they would have distributed themselves relatively the same in all positions of the N. Pole of the electromagnet with an uneven distribution among the four points N., S., E. and W. However, as far as the experiment shows, the insects moved without regard for the magnet's position, as can be seen from the insignificant values of χ^2 in Table 3.

Other insects, namely Calandra granaria and Araecerus fasciculatus adults, and Tenebrio molitor adults and larvae, were used, but in no case was there any suggestion that the insect could appreciate a change in the magnetic field.

These conclusions would appear to be consistent with the behaviour of migrant insects in nature. If migrating insects orientated themselves to the earth's field, they would undergo a cyclic shifting in their directions of flight

to compensate for the cyclic motion of the earth's magnetic poles. Although it has never been especially looked for, there is no reason to suppose that there has been any such movement in migratory birds over the many years that they have been observed. There have been occasional references to the occurrence of insect migrations in the tropics simultaneous with magnetic storms, but they are so few that they are best regarded as being coincidences.

	JAN.	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT	OCT.	NOV.	DEC
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1933									4	10 4 47	414	* 4" "
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937	W		*	RE						1		

Fig. 52.-Evidence of return flight in Phoebis eubule in Alabama.

IX. THE PROBLEM OF THE RETURN FLIGHT.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

The Evidence.

The problem of the existence of a return flight in some or all of the migrating butterflies still remains one of fundamental importance and it is proposed to review first the evidence that has accumulated on this point so that the discussion which follows need not be encumbered by enumeration of facts or data.

Phoebis (Catopsilia) eubule.

The most striking evidence of a return flight of this species has been observed, at Montgomery, Alabama, over a period of about seventeen years by Mr. P. H. Smyth (Williams 1938b). He recorded the direction of flight of the butterflies observed crossing a park at frequent intervals from the autumn of 1920 to the spring of 1937. During that period very large numbers passed towards the south-east every year from the end of July to the beginning of December, and much smaller numbers were occasionally seen in the spring during March and April passing in the opposite direction to the N.W.

Fig. 52 gives a summary of his observations and shows how regularly the

flights occurred.

Catopsilia pyranthe (and possibly other Catopsilia spp.).

At Kodaikanal in South India, Evershed has observed (1927, Williams, Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. 75:9) large flights of Catopsilia pyranthe and other species to the south in October and November in several years; and flights in the opposite direction, towards the north, in February and March. C. pyranthe was definitely identified in these return flights, but other species were probably also present.

Colias croceus.

In my previous summary of this species (Williams 1930: 133) only seven directional flights were recorded of which two were towards the south in the autumn. One of these was in Dorset, England, in September 1928 and the other near Cannes in the South of France in September and October 1921.

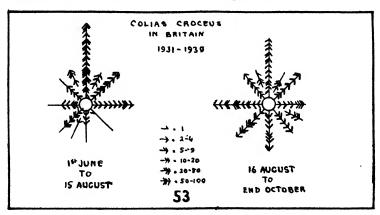


Fig. 53.—Evidence of return flight in Colias croceus in Britain.

Since then three other late summer or autumn flights have been recorded as follows :-

1900, Oct. 10. Hautes Pyrénées, France.

Serried column seen by M. Rondu (Williams 1935d).

1928, Aug. 7-14. Nr. Chamonix, Switzerland. To S.W.

Incredibly abundant and moving steadily. Warren (1928). 1934, Sept. 27. Royan, Charent Inf., France. To S.

Suddenly abundant and moving to S. Bon (Williams 1935d).

On the other hand, an examination of a large number of records of the direction of flights of C. croccus in England, usually, however, fewer than a dozen individuals at a time, does not show any predominantly southerly flight (fig. 53), such as that shown in V. atalanta by the same method.

Since, however, in south England one is very near the northern limit of the normal distribution of C. croceus it might be expected that the southerly autumn flight would not be so obvious here as it would be farther south in France when larger numbers of individuals would be available to join in them.

Kricogonia lycide.

S. F. Aaron (1929) states that in the Rio Grande district of Texas countless numbers of this species fly southwards towards and into Mexico at the end of the dry season about September: then, in April and May, another flight takes place in the opposite direction towards the north in greatly reduced numbers.

TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 1. (JULY 1942.) Several other records exist of the spring flight to the north, but the large autumn flights to the south have not so far been recorded by other observers.

Ascia monuste.

Although this species undoubtedly flies both to the north and to the south in Florida, it is not certain that it comes under the category of a species with a true return flight at a later period.

The evidence available up to the end of 1937 has been summarised (Williams 1938) and seemed at the time to support Fernald's Theory that there was one

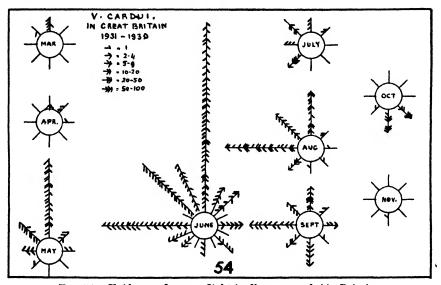


Fig. 54.—Evidence of return flight in Vanessa cardui in Britain.

centre of migration in North Central Florida from which butterflies flew away both to the north and to the south.

Since then, however, considerably more evidence has come in from the regular observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges (see p. 143) and they have shown that at Melbourne, Florida, in both 1938 and 1939 there was a quite definite and sudden reversal in direction in the middle of the flight season. In 1938 the insects flew to the south from mid-March to the 16th May and to the north from the 18th May to the end of June. In 1939 they flew again to the south from early March to the 10th June and to the north from the 11th June to the end of July.

Vanessa cardui.

There is as yet no evidence of a southerly movement of this butterfly in the U.S.A. and there is little or no new evidence in favour of a return flight in Europe.

In my previous summary (Williams 1930b) the most important piece of evidence brought forward for the southerly movement was information received from an entomologist and ornithologist Dr. Walter Innes in Egypt. He stated that he had on many occasions been on the north coast of Egypt at the time of the autumn immigration of the quail. These arrive in great numbers in the early morning, flying low over the sea. Dr. Innes states that on several occasions he had seen small numbers of Painted Ladies, sometimes in groups

of two or three, come ashore from the north with the quail. There is no reason to doubt the truth of these observations, but so far no one has had the oppor-

tunity to repeat them.

In England the direction of flights of individuals and small numbers of butterflies recorded by numerous observers from 1931 to 1939 have been tabulated in fig. 54, but while they show a preponderance of northerly flights in May and June, there is in the autumn, except in October, no definite preponderance of flights to the south. It can be said, however, that there are more records of southerly flights in the autumn than earlier in the year.

The evidence for the return flight of this butterfly is disappointing in view of the regularity of the appearance of the insect in two continents. It appears likely that the return does takes place in Europe and North Africa, but the

evidence is not easy to obtain.

Vanessa virginiensis.

On p. 154 of this report evidence of a return flight in this species is brought forward from the observations of Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida. They record a southerly movement in September 1938, and a northward movement during March 1939. The autumn movement to the south had also been previously recorded by Shannon (1917, Amer. Mus. J. 17:33).

Vanessa atalanta.

Evidence about the movements of the Red Admiral Butterfly in Great Britain has greatly increased in the past ten years and the results of two years' close observations have been summarised by Mrs. K. Grant (1936a).

She has shown first by a study of the numbers present in different parts of England that they begin to disappear in the north before the south, and further that the disappearance in the north (usually about the end of September) is

accompanied by a sudden increase in the numbers in the south.

Secondly when the recorded flight directions of individuals or small numbers of butterflies sent in by numerous observers were tabulated for the years 1934 and 1935 Mrs. Grant found that (1) up to the end of July the flights were predominantly to the north and (2) during September and October the flights were predominantly to the south.

Since then the records for 1936-1939 have been studied, and fig. 55 shows

the combined results of the observations in the 6 years 1934-39.

The previous conclusion is completely supported and the preponderance of northerly flights in May, June and July and of southerly flights in September and October is quite striking.

On two or three occasions, for example on the 23rd September 1934 at Start Point Lighthouse in Devon, and on the 26th-27th September 1935 at Round Island Lighthouse in the Scilly Islands, Red Admirals were seen to pass out to sea towards the south in numbers.

Still further evidence of autumn movement, although not of the direction of flight, is found in Fletcher's observations that butterflies marked in the autumn at Stroud, Gloucester, were very seldom seen again at the point of marking

(see p. 224).

On the continent of Europe evidence of a return flight in the autumn has been brought forward by E. Fisher (1919), who saw a definite flight to the south near Zurich in September 1910, and by Foltin (1937a and b), who records definite southerly flights at Zell-am-Pettenfurst in Upper Austria at the beginning of October in each of the three years 1932, 1934 and 1936.

Dione vanillae.

Strong evidence of a return flight in *Dione vanillae* has been brought forward in this report (p. 149) by Mr. and Mrs. Hodges in Florida. They observed thin but definite movements towards the north in the spring, especially March and April, of 1938 and 1939, and very definite and quite conspicuously large flights towards the south in September and October of the same years.

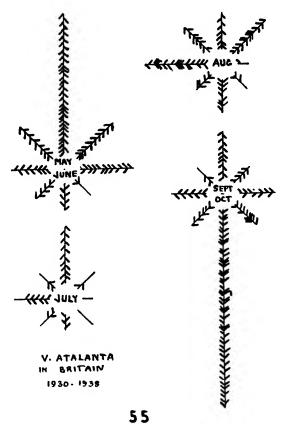


Fig. 55.—Evidence of return flight in Vanessa atalanta in Britain.

Libythea labdaca.

Farquharson (1918 and 1922) recorded this butterfly in Nigeria as flying southward early in the rains about April; and returning northwards "towards the end of the rains." The month when this return occurred was not given nor were there any exact records of either flight.

In 1930 I had collected about a dozen records of flights for Nigeria, Gold Coast and Sierra Leone. Most of the flights, including all from Nigeria, were in March, April and May and in a southerly direction as stated by Farquharson. There were, however, two flights recorded later in the year (in August and September in the Gold Coast) but they were also to the south.

Since the above summary was made several new records have come in (Williams 1933b and 1939a), three of which are in the second season in October, but only one of these is towards the north. On the other hand, there is a record

of a flight to the north in January and February which is difficult to reconcile with Farquharson's statement. Miss Vinall (Poulton 1933d) has recorded migrations of *L. labdaca* at Bongandenga in Belgian Congo in April and in August 1932, but in neither case was the direction of flight reported.

Fig. 56 shows a summary of the present known records. In spite of Farquharson's definite statement, the question of return flight in this species is still

somewhat doubtful.

LIBYTHEA LABOACA	JAN.	FEB.	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT	OCT.	NOV.	DEC.	MONTH NOT STATED
SIERRA LEONE.					7								
GOLD COAST.			4-	+				+	+	1+			
NIGERIA.	t	11 +	3,2	3 +	+;+					,			

56

Fig. 56.—Evidence of a return flight in Libythea labdaca in West Africa.

Danaus plexippus.

There is now no doubt whatever as to the existence of a return flight in the movements of this butterfly. No other explanation will fit the numerous records that have already been given (Williams 1930b and 1938b and on p. 165 of the present report).

The evidence in this species is even more definite as it seems certain that the northerly flight in the spring in North America is performed by the same individuals which moved south in the autumn, and not merely by other individuals of a later generation. In no other species does the evidence suggest this conclusion.

Danaus berenice.

Mr. and Mrs. Hodges have observed in Florida thin but definite northward flights of this species in spring and early summer, and quite definite southward flights in the autumn, particularly in September and October (see p. 148).

Andronymus neander.

The recorded flights of this butterfly in East Africa are discussed on p. 220. The majority of flights are in March and April towards the south and southeast. The only records at this period of the year not in this general direction consist of a few individuals in flights of other species of butterfly. On the other hand, the only record at another period of the year, in October, is towards the north.

The evidence is suggestive but does not yet prove a return flight.

Badamia exclamationis.

Burns (1933) has stated that in the coastal district of Queensland he has observed flights of this butterfly more or less towards the south at Cairns, near Rockhampton, and at Brisbane in December and January; the flight being later in the south than in the north. Then after an interval of about six weeks (during which a generation develops at Rockhampton) flights in the reverse directions, towards the north, have been seen at Rockhampton, Mackay and Cairns. The observations are shown diagrammatically in fig. 57.

Plusia gamma.

The evidence for the return flight of this species in Great Britain has been recently summarised by K. Fisher (Mrs. Grant) (1938) and the summary

diagram of her results has been reproduced in fig. 58.

It will be seen that from May to July the majority of the insects are observed moving to the north; in the first half of August there are movements to north, west and south, but not to east; while from the middle of August to the end of October most of the flights are towards the south. Throughout the whole year there is little or no evidence of any easterly movement.

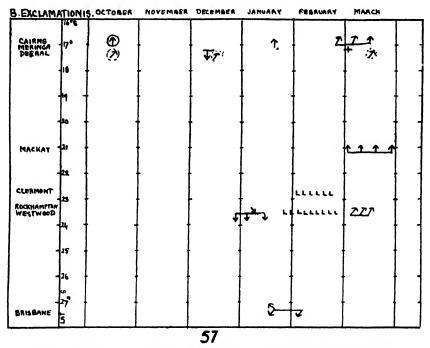


Fig. 57.—Evidence of a return flight in Badamia exclamationis in Australia.

The southward movements included two very large flights observed at the Start Point Lighthouse in South Devon by Mr. W. A. Godfrey: one on the 12th September 1934 and one on the 4th August 1935; in both cases the insects were flying in thousands out to sea to the south.

Urania fulgens.

Many years ago Friedrich (van Bemmelen 1857) stated that this day-flying moth migrated every year in the state of Vera Cruz, Mexico, beginning in April for two or three weeks towards the north and returning in the opposite direction about six weeks later.

It is now known that this insect migrates regularly in most of the Central American States and the evidence on reversal of flight has recently been summarised (Williams 1937c).

There is evidence of two flight periods: one from about March to May and the other in July and August. In the former the flights are predominantly to the north and in the second to the east and south, but there are exceptions in both seasons.

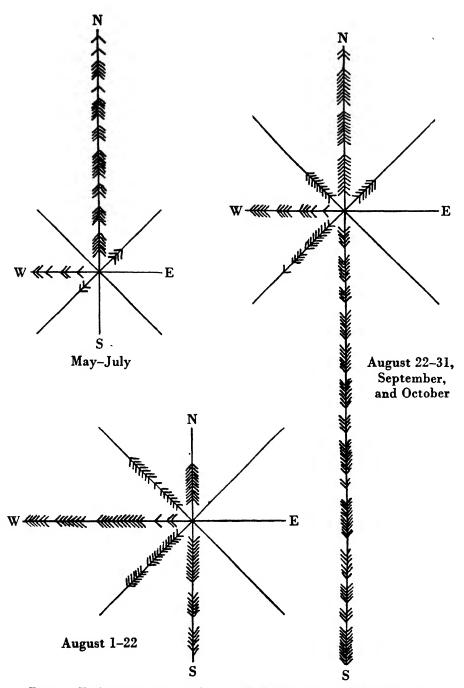


Fig. 58.—Evidence of a return flight in Plusia gamma (from J. anim. Ecol. 1937).

Since the above summary was made, Mr. A. F. Skutch has reported that in Costa Rica in 1938 he observed flights to the north in April and May, and then about the beginning of June the insects began to fly to the south and continued till the end of August. Even during this period, however, a minority continued to fly to the north. The flight ceased at the beginning of September.

Mr. P. A. Vedoua also reports a flight to the north at the end of March and

beginning of April, 1939, at San José, Costa Rica.

Mr. W. Schaus also writes that he had on several occasions observed the north-westerly flight of *U. fulgens* in Mexico on the eastern slopes; and that on one occasion he thought that there had been a flight in the opposite direction, but no date was recorded.

On the whole the new evidence lends support to the theory that this moth has a definite return flight at a later season of the year.

The evidence for a return flight is summarised above for the following fifteen species.

PIERIDAE.

Phoebis eubule (U.S.A.).
Catopsilia pyranthe (India).
Colias croceus (W. Europe).
Kricogonia lycide (U.S.A.)?.
Ascia monuste (Florida)?.
NYMPHALIDAE.

Vanessa cardui (Europe).

Vanessa atalantà (Europe). Dione vanillae (U.S.A.).

LIBYTHEINAE.

Libythea labdaca (W. Africa)?.

DANAIDAE.

Danaus plexippus (U.S.A.).
Danaus berenice (U.S.A.).

HESPERIIDAE.

Andronymus neander (E. Africa)?.
Badamia exclamationis (Australia).

NOCTUIDAE.

Plusia gamma (Europe).

Uraniidae.

Urania fulgens (C. America).

Of these the evidence is not very definite in five but in the ten remaining insects there is good evidence of the existence of a return flight. This is not a high proportion of the known migrants, but is quite a high proportion of those in which there is sufficient evidence to justify any conclusions.

Reference should also be made to the fact that the flights of moths and butterflies recorded at the British lightships showed a change in direction from predominantly west and north-west up to mid-August to south and south-

east after this date (see p. 140 of this report).

Discussion.

In 1931 there appeared posthumously a book *Emigration*, *Migration and Nomadism* by Dr. Walter Heape, F.R.S. The author had died in 1929 and the book was edited and supplied with a preface by Dr. F. H. A. Marshall. Thus the essential portions of it were written before my own book on the migration of butterflies appeared, but it was published afterwards.

The author, from previous experience as a physiologist, starts with the basic assumption that there are two fundamentally different types of mass movement in the animal kingdom. The one, in which there is a return movement at a later season, he designates "migration"; and the other, in which there is no return, he calls "emigration." He also considers that the two types of movement are due to two fundamentally different physiological causes which he defines as "gametic" and "alimental"; or, in other words, one due to an urge for reproduction, and the other to the need for food.

In the former class he puts the migration of most birds, turtles, most fishes

including the eel, some crabs, and among insects the APHIDAE, some locusts and

the single butterfly D. plexippus.

Among the "emigrants" are the lemming, the spring-buck of S. Africa, the moose, certain rats, a few birds, including Pallas' Sand-Grouse, most locusts, dragonflies, and all "migrant" butterflies and moths with the single exception given above.

He objects very strongly to the use of the word "migration" for any movement in which a return has not been demonstrated, and wished to confine the use of the word "emigration" to movements which are believed to be in one direction only.

His classification appears at first to have the merits of simplification, but on the whole I am not in agreement with his theories, particularly as they concern the Lepidoptera.

Terminology.

If it is correct that there are two essentially different processes of migration with fundamentally different causes and so presumably separate origins, it is most certainly desirable to have different words to express them. I have, however, already pointed out (1920, Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. 1920: 215) that a "migration," in whatever sense the word is used, consists in sequence of three processes according to the locality from which it is viewed; there is an "emigration" from the point of origin; a "transmigration" at any point on route; and an "immigration" at the point where the migrants come to rest. It seems therefore very unsatisfactory to take a word that means an essential part of any migration and to restrict its use to a phenomenon which one believes to be fundamentally distinct. If the word "migration" is used in any restricted sense, then "emigration" should not be used in any other meaning than a portion of this process. I suggest that if "migration" is limited to movement in which a return journey is established, then the word "exodus" might be used for those without a return.

The reality of the difference between "migration" and "exodus" in Lepidoptera.

Twenty years ago a return flight at a different time of the year had not been established in any species of Lepidoptera with the doubtful exception of the Monarch (D. plexippus).

In my book in 1930 it was definitely established for this butterfly and suggested to occur also in V. cardui in Europe, in certain Catopsilias in India, in L. labdaca in West Africa, in Catopsilia sennae (P. eubule) in U.S.A. and in the moths Urania fulgens in Central America and Agrotis ipsilon in India.

Up to that time it can be said that practically no regular observations on the migrations of butterflies had ever been made. The evidence available was only a large number of scattered records of any flights that had been conspicuous enough to force themselves on the notice of some observer who, up to that moment, had not been in any way interested in the problem.

Now for about ten years there has been a greatly increased interest in the subject and a few scattered observers actually watching for movements and ready to observe both thick and thin flights. The need for a classification (see p. 260) which includes densities down to one butterfly per 100 yards per minute shows how thin a flight can now come under observation.

As a result, the number of species with suspected returns (pp. 240 to 248) has more than doubled. The southward autumn flight has been demonstrated beyond doubt in such species as the Red Admiral (V. atalanta), which twenty years

ago was hardly considered as a migrant; and in the Silver-Y moth (*P. gamma*), known as a migrant for fifty years, but never previously considered to return S.

In fact, evidence of a return begins to appear in nearly every species when sufficient records are available, and particularly when efforts have been made to get continuous observations at all times of the year, instead of only during

the period of conspicuous flight.

The more that information is available about the species in which a return flight occurs, the more frequently it appears that the flight in one direction is conspicuous and the flight in the other direction difficult to observe. Thus the Monarch migrates southward in autumn gregariously in large bands which attract popular attention, but the butterflies go northward in the spring individually, and it requires a careful watch to demonstrate the movement.

Phoebis eubule, as observed by Smyth in Alabama (fig. 52), has a conspicuous autumn flight in large numbers, and a spring flight in the opposite direction

in very much smaller numbers.

The southward flight of *V. atalanta*, already referred to, has been demonstrated almost entirely from the flights of individual butterflies, recorded by a number of observers none of whom was probably conscious of any extensive directional movement taking place. Thus it is likely that many, if not most, "return flights" have been still overlooked.

Even today the available evidence on Lepidoptera is still strongly biased in favour of conspicuous mass flights, and it is dangerous to theorise too much on the meaning of the apparent absence of a return. Absence of evidence is not

evidence of absence.

There is still another difficulty in connection with movements without a return flight, which I have already pointed out and which has been discussed by Elton (1930). This difficulty is not a practical one of obtaining unbiased evidence, but a theoretical one of evolutionary development. If in any species there is a permanent home from which an "exodus" of part of the population occurs at intervals (regular or irregular); and if this portion goes away to die elsewhere without leaving any progeny, while the species is kept going only by the progeny of the individuals which stay behind: under such conditions how is the instinct to "migrate" perpetuated?

If for fifty thousand years (or so) Vanessa cardui has persisted in parts of North Africa, and every year a large portion of the population develops an urge to fly away to Europe—there to die—why does the urge to move continue to appear in the North African butterflies all of whose ancestors in a direct line for many thousands of generations must have been the individuals who did not

develop the urge to migrate?

Modern theories of evolution, from Darwin to the statistical geneticists, demand a survival value for any characteristic which is to persist. How then can an instinct be so widespread, if, instead of a survival value, it carries a certainty of extinction and sterility to the individual possessing it?

This difficulty is so serious that in 1930 I wrote of migration without a return flight "the majority of butterflies seem to come under this heading, but whether this expresses a biological truth or is only the result of our lack of knowledge it is

impossible to say at this time."

After a further ten years of examination of evidence I still cannot overcome the evolutionary difficulty and I can still point to no butterfly in which the absence of a return flight has been established beyond reasonable doubt. It is of course always difficult to prove a negative case, but in Lepidoptera, at least, the search for evidence has not been carried out sufficiently far to justify a theory

requiring two fundamentally different processes of migration, using the word in its widest sense.

I should also suggest that, even in the case of so well known a creature as the lemming, no one has made any serious effort to watch for movements on a very small scale in between the periods of great overflow nor has anyone tabulated the direction of movement of large numbers of single individuals of any of Heape's "emigrant" mammals at all seasons of the year or for a series of years. The difficulties are great, but Mr. Smyth's seventeen-year diagram (p. 240) might be set up as an example worth following.

Heape's classification of the causes of the two apparent types of migration also brings many difficulties in its train. He himself finds that it breaks down almost immediately, and he has to recognise several other causes including "climatic" and "over-population." If fact he finally states that the causes of "emigration" can be: (1) alimental; to get food; (2) climatic; to get to a

better climate; or (3) the result of over-population.

In "migration" the movement towards the breeding area is gametic (the urge for reproduction), while the movement away from the breeding area is either climatic, or alimental, or the result of over-population, in fact the causes are the same as his "emigration." So in his fundamentally distinct "migration" the gametic urge has to alternate with a non-gametic urge to produce the regular backward and forward movement of the population. He cannot have a gametic "migration" without an alternating "emigration."

Nearly all butterflies and moths he would classify under the "alimental" stimulus, yet they do not migrate until the adult stage when all the main feeding of that individual has been done. So far from having received any early indication of approaching food shortage, the migrating butterflies, moths (and locusts) have usually large stores of reserve energy stored up in the form of fat-bodies,

which can later be used for locomotion or for egg production.

Most of the evidence that Heape produces is from the birds, fishes and mammals. At one point he discusses the effect on the regularity of migration of the exceptionally long life and slow reproduction of the elephant, but he does not seem to have taken into consideration sufficiently the opposite effect of the short life of insects and other invertebrates. Is it only a coincidence that most of his examples of "migration" are from long-lived vertebrates, and most of his examples of "emigration" from the invertebrates?, or that the only species among butterflies that he will allow to "migrate" is the Monarch which has an exceptionally long adult life of nearly one year?

The phenomenon of the return flight cannot occur with quite the same regularity in Lepidoptera with their short lives, high birth and death rate and violent fluctuations in population numbers as in, for example, the birds with relatively long lives, and low death and birth rate, or at the other extreme the elephant with very long life, low birth rate and (until the evolution of *Homo*

sapiens) a low death rate.

It is perhaps at this point worth drawing attention again to the curious fact that among the butterflies in which the return flight has been established, in Europe the spring flight to the north appears to be the more conspicuous and undertaken by larger numbers that the return flight in the autumn; while in the case of the American butterflies (except *V. cardui*) the southward flight in the autumn is much more conspicuous than the northward flight in the spring. The American migrants seem to increase their numbers in the north during the summer and reduce them in the south during the winter; while the European migrants appear to reduce their numbers in the north during the summer and increase them during the winter in the south.

If the evidence has been correctly interpreted, it is difficult to find a reason. Two suggestions can, however, be made. In the first place most of the evidence of migrations of butterflies in Europe has been collected in England and Germany in latitudes approximately 48-55° N.; whereas in America most of the records come from areas in latitudes 30-40° N.; at least 15° or a thousand miles nearer the Equator and at a level equivalent to North Africa and the Mediterranean basin on the other side of the Atlantic. It is possible that if more intensive studies could be carried out in the south of Europe the autumn flights would be found to be more conspicuous, as indeed has already been found with Colias croceus in the south of France.

The other possibility is that the different configurations of the two continental areas may have an effect. In Europe there is the Mediterranean in latitude 30-45°, apparently frequently crossed by large numbers of migrants, and south of which the sub-tropical area still continues in North Africa, where

many of our European immigrants breed during the winter.

In America, on the other hand, there is the much wider Caribbean Sea in latitude 10-30° N., cutting out a very large sub-tropical breeding area. North of this there is only a very narrow belt of sub-tropical land (Florida and parts of Mexico) and south of it there is the essentially different damp tropical climate. Considering the frequent sea traffic and the number of small islands, there are very few records of migrant insects crossing from the north of South America to the Gulf States of the U.S.A.

It is interesting to note in this connection that *Vanessa cardui*, the one butterfly that migrates into the U.S.A. from the south in very large numbers in the spring in the same way as in Europe, comes apparently from western Mexico, the only portion of the southern boundary of the U.S.A. where there is a large land area with a dry sub-tropical climate such as is found in North Africa.

X. Correlation between occurrence of migrants in U.S.A. and Europe.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

In 1937 Mrs. K. Grant made a study of the years of occurrence in numbers of the Striped Hawk-Moth (*Celerio lineata livornica*) in Europe and of the American race of the same species (*C. lineata lineata*) in the United States. Fairly good information was obtained from both continents over a period of sixty years, 1876–1935.

The insect occurred in unusual numbers in Europe in 23 of these years and in America in the same number. When the years were divided into the four possible groups of (1) occurring in both Europe and America, (2) occurring neither in Europe nor America, (3) occurring in Europe but not in America, and (4) vice versa, the frequency distribution was as shown in Table 29, A.

If the sixty years, including 23 occurrences in Europe and 23 in America, were completely randomised in the four categories the number expected in each would be as shown in Table 29. B.

From these it will be seen that the observed numbers are in excess in the .categories "occurring both in Europe and America," and "occurring in neither," but are below the expected in the other two. The evidence therefore shows that there is a tendency for large migrations to occur simultaneously in both

continents.

For those who are statistically minded, the test of the significance of the departures of the observed results from those calculated from an assumption of no correlation, gives $\chi^2 = 4.0$, which is a significant result with a probability

just below 1 in 20. In other words, such a result could be got by accident only about once in about twenty-two trials.

This conclusion was of great interest and an opportunity has been taken

TABLE 29.

Distribution of occurrence of C. lineata in Europe and N. America. A. Observed frequency; B. Frequency calculated on no correlation.

		A.—Ol	served free	quency.	B.—Frequency calculated on no correlation.				
		In Europe	Not in Europe	Total	In Europe	Not in Europe	Total		
In America . Not in America .	:	13 10	10 27	23 37	9 14	14 23	23 37		
Total	•	23	37	60	23	37	60		

to get a similar series of data for the Painted Lady Butterfly (Vanessa cardui), which also migrates in both continents and is not even racially distinct in each.

It has not been easy to obtain good information for all the years as the insect is not a serious pest and thus is not so frequently recorded in the literature of Applied Entomology. On the other hand, it is not sufficient of a rarity to be recorded regularly by collectors. However, it is unlikely that many really large outbreaks have passed unrecorded.

After examination of a large number of records the information in Table 30 has been collected to show whether or not the insect has been above the average in numbers in either Continent in each of the 74 years from 1865 to 1938.

From these data Table 31 has been prepared on the same lines as Table 29

Table 30.

Years of above the average abundance of V. cardui in Europe and America, 1865-1938.

	Eur.	Am.		Eur.	Am.		Eur.	Am.		Eur.	Am.
			1880			1900	c	С	1920	С	c
			1881			1901		c	1921		
			1882			1902	c	c	1922		
			1883	c		1903	c		1923		
			1884	c	c	1904			1924		C
1865	c	c	1885	c		1905			1925		
1866			1886		c	1906	c		1926	c	c
1867			1887			1907	c	C	1927		
1868	C		1888	C	c	1908	c		1928	C	
1869	c	c	1889	c	c	1909			1929		
1870			1890			1910			1930		
1871			1891			1911			1931	O	c
1872			1892	c		1912	C		1932		
1873			1893			1913		C .	1933		
1874			1894	c		1914	c	o	1934		
1875			1895		c	1915			1935		C
1876			1896			1916		•	1936		
1877	c		1897			1917	c		1937	c	
1878		О	1898			1918			1938		
1879	c	c 1	1899	C	C	1919					

¹ Abundant in the Hawaiian Islands after not having been seen for several years.

and gives the same indications as the data for C. lineata, namely that there is a

tendency for migrations to occur simultaneously in both continents.

The test of significance gives $\chi^2 = 8.0$, which is significant at a level of about 1 in 200. The significance is, however, made considerably larger by the number of years with no records for either Continent. If one omits ten of these as possibly due to lack of evidence and only considers 30 years with outbreaks in neither Continent one still gets $\chi^2 = 4.9$, which is significant at the 1 in 35 level.

TABLE 31.

Distribution of occurrence of *V. cardui* in Europe and N. America. A. Observed frequency; B. Frequency calculated on no correlation.

		A.—Ob	served freq	luency.	B.—Frequency calculated no correlation.				
		In Europe	Not in Europe	Total	In Europe	Not in Europe	Total		
In America . Not in America .	•	13 14	7 40	20 54	7·6 19·4	12·4 34·6	20 54		
Total	•	27	47	74	27	47	74		

If a record of the occurrence of large numbers of Painted Ladies in Hawaii in 1879 (a year of great abundance in Europe) may be taken as evidence of migration in North America, the results become even more significant with $\chi^2 = 6.269$, which is significant at just above 1 in 100, even when ten of the years with no records are omitted.

The observations analysed for the two species therefore both show a tendency for large migrations to occur, or not to occur, simultaneously on both sides of the Atlantic.

This implies that, whatever the causes of extensive migration may be, they cannot be localised as independent happenings, but must be due to some widespread event, tending to vary in the same direction over areas covering nearly half the circumference of the earth.

XI. Correlations of occurrence of British immigrants.

By G. F. Cockbill.

About ten years ago, Williams commented on the appearance in entomological journals of such notes as "This year has been a good one for migrants," or alternatively, "Very few migrants have been reported this year," and asked if this represented a biological truth or a series of selected coincidences (Williams 1930b: 406).

There have been, in the literature, frequent allusions to the fact that when $V.\ cardui$ is very abundant, $P.\ gamma$ and $N.\ noctuella$ also tended to be abundant, but beyond such remarks there is very little information of the activities of migrants in relation to one another.

Sufficient information has now been collected concerning the yearly abundances of thirty-five migrant species discussed in Section III of this report (p. 105) to allow correlations to be made and so to discover whether any species tend to occur or not to occur together.

The indices of abundance already described (p. 106) were used as a basis for the correlations.

Table 32, A, shows all the correlations of each of 35 species with all others. The species are arranged in four groups, Rhopalocera, Sphinges, Noctuae and an assortment of Pyralidae, Geometridae and others labelled "Miscellaneous."

The correlations were taken over a period of 75 years from 1857 to 1931 in all but 5 cases. This period was decided upon because before 1857 records were scanty and after 1931 the records were of quite a different order due to the greatly increased numbers of records obtained through the Insect Immigration Committee of the S.E.U.S.S.

The five exceptions were of two kinds: (1) those species which were first recorded in Britain subsequent to 1857 were included for the period of their occurrence in Britain only. For this reason *D. plexippus* was considered over a period of 56 years and *L. albipuncta* over 64 years; (2) those species in which the early records were very scanty and vague were considered from the year when the records became fairly consistent. Thus *C. ambigua*, *P. napi* and *N. noctuella* were dealt with for 52 years.

The figures in the first column show the average correlations of each species with all others. Where 75 years are taken, the value of the correlation must be 0.23 or over to have a probability of 19 out of 20 that the result has not arisen by chance and a value of 0.30 or over to have a probability of 99 out of 100. Where 52 years are taken these values are increased to 0.27 and 0.35 respectively.

For convenience of reference in Tables 17, 18 and 19 a lettered key is provided in each case.

Table 32, C, shows all the significant values indicated by + or - signs. The large signs show values at or above 1 in 100 level, and the small signs show values below these but significant at or above the 1 in 20 level. In this table, it can be seen that in section A, some species are highly positively correlated, e.g. V. cardui, V. atalanta, C. croccus and C. hyale, and others, namely the "Whites," are negatively correlated with other species.

In Section B (key), the correlations "Butterflies against Hawk-Moths," it can be seen that M. stellatarum shows a high positive correlation with V. cardui, V. atalanta, C. croceus and C. hyale, and that here again the Pierids show negative correlations.

In Section C, "Hawk-Moths against Hawk-Moths," there is very little relationship shown.

In Section D, "Butterflies against Noctuids," the Pierids again show negative correlations, and P. gamma shows a positive relationship with V. cardui, V. atalanta, C. croceus and C. hyale. The relationships of the other species are not very clear.

In Section E little is shown with "Noctuids against Hawk-Moths," but in Section F the "Noctuids against Noctuids," a general high positive correlation appears.

In Section G, the "Miscellaneous group against Butterflies," N. noctuella shows positive relationship with the V. cardui and V. atalanta group, and U. pulchella shows a negative relation with the butterflies. Section H, "Miscellaneous against Hawk-Moths," shows little except that in the case of U. pulchella the only significant values are negative.

In Section I, the Noctuids show a high positive correlation with L. salicis and N. noctuella, while in Section J, "Miscellaneous against Miscellaneous," N. obstipata and S. sacraria show a positive relationship and U. pulchella shows negative values.

These observations are summarised in tab. 32, B, where the average correlations for each section are shown. The highest average correlations occur between "Noctuids and Noctuids" and between "Miscellaneous and Noctuids" (Sections F and I respectively).

The total number of correlations is 595, of which 161 are negative values and 434 are positive. This preponderance of positive values is better shown in a frequency distribution of all correlations, fig. 59. The mean of all 595 correlations is +0.12.

There are two possible explanations for this preponderance of positive values. It could be a biological fact resulting from a tendency for migrants to occur and to be absent together, *i.e.*, for there to be "good" and "bad" years for several migrant species simultaneously.

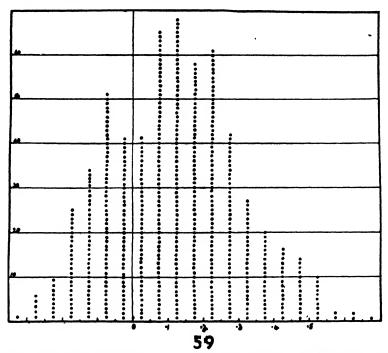


Fig. 59.—Frequency distribution of the 595 intercorrelations of 35 British immigrant butterflies and moths.

It could also be due to irregularities in the evidence resulting from waves of interest in observers of migrant species. If for a few years migrants tended to be recorded and then for a few more to be overlooked altogether, they would show a positive correlation.

It is possible that both explanations are contributory. In order to reduce the effect of the second possibility, the correlation values were expressed as departures from the mean +0.12 so that the positive bias was counteracted. The numbers of positive and negative values now become 291 and 304 respectively, which indicates an equal distribution about the mean.

Table 33, A, shows all correlations expressed as departure from the general mean (+ 0·12), the species now being arranged in order of their average correlation with all other species.

noct. н +0-15 +0-03 +0-05 sal. DEF -0-21 -0-12 pul. o +000 +000 | -006 +018 | -019 | +017 | +014 | +010 | +015 | +000 | +001 | +000 | +000 | -000 | -011 | +000 | +000 | +000 | +000 | +000 | +001 | +018 | +018 | +018 | -0.06 | +0.10 | -0.16 | +0.06 | +0.07 | +0.08 | -0.09 | -0.01 | +0.08 | +0.07 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0.08 | +0 +0.17 | -0.15 | +0.04 | +0.42 | +0.06 | +0.29 | +0.28 | +0.28 | +0.28 | +0.28 | +0.24 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.04 | +0.05 | +0.04 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.05 | 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General mean +0 12

+0.33 +0.36 +0.40 +0.24 hyal. AA BB +009 +009 +016 +016 +001 +013 +013 +018 +018 +017 +021 +024 +020 +051 +03 +03 +030 +030 +032 in E S +0.36 +0.28 z 2 ن M -043 +014 +011 +082 +011 +014 +014 +004 +015 +017 +014 +021 +013 +015 +015 10-43 | +0-12 | +0-26 | +0-21 | +0-51 +004 | -008 | -008 | +019 | +010 | +028 | +020 | +038 | +027 | +008 | +012 | +028 | +014 | +014 | +024 | +014 -0-06 | +0-22 | -0-12 | -0-05 | -0-05 | +0-15 | -0-05 | +0-25 | +0-15 | -0-07 | -0-03 | +0-24 | +0-22 | +0-03 | +0-12 | +0-13 | -0-04 | +0-01 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | -0-04 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 | +0-23 ø А -0.18 +0.02 -0.02 -0.13 -0.07 -0.17 -0.17 -0.21 -0.06 -0.19 -0.11 +0.21 0 +0.04 +0.03 +0.05 -0.08 -0.08 +0.05 +0.0 ara. -0.20 +0.00 -0.20 +0.19 +0.13 -0.02 -0.20 -0.12 +0.11 -0.10 +0.01 -0.04 -0.12 +0.10 -0.12 -0.07 +0.10 -0.12 -0.07 +0.06 +0.09 +0.13 +0.13 +0.12 +0.01 -0.14 +0.08 +0.01 -0 07 | +0-09 | +0-06 | +0-17 | +0-30 dap. 1006 - 032 - 007 - 011 - 047 + 048 + 028 + 041 + 041 + 041 + 041 + 041 + 041 + 042 - 041 + 042 - 041 + 042 + 042 + 042 + 042 + 042 - 004 + 042 - 004 + 042 + -0.12 +0.05 +0.32 Jur. +000 | -025 | +007 | -021 | -018 | -001 | +013 | +008 | -018 | -027 | -015 | +018 | -018 | +018 | +011 | +014 | -020 | -020 | -020 | +015 | +015 | -010 | +016 | -010 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +016 | +0 gam | +0.08 | -0.01 | +0.26 | +0.04 | +0.04 | -0.03 | +0.04 | -0.08 | -0.04 | -0.26 | -0.01 | +0.01 | +0.03 | +0.11 | +0.12 | $-0.02 \left[-0.02 + -0.07 + -0.13 + -0.01 + -0.01 + -0.01 + -0.21 + -0.20 + -0.02 + -0.02 + -0.02 + -0.02 + -0.02 + +0.02 + +0.04 + 0.00 + -0.10 + +0.00 + -0.0$ -0.01 | +0.01 | +0.01 | +0.04 | +0.05 | +0.05 | +0.07 | +0.07 | -0.02 | -0.15 | +0.01 | -0.12 | +0.00 | -0.20 | -0.10 | +0.08 | -0.17 | -0.05 | -0.11 | +0.12 | -001 | -035 | -0104 | -0.18 | 1013 | -0.06 | -0.15 | -0.04 | -0.12 | -0.12 | -0.14 | -0.08 | -0.12 | -0.27 | 0 | +0.14 | -0.10 | -0.04 | -0.06 | atr. je, -0-04 +0-04 +0-09 +0.17 +0-24 +0-27 -0-22 | -0-07 | +0-08 | +0-02 | -0-41 | +0-29 -0-09 -0-02 -0-05 -0-16 +0-09 -0-05 +0-03 -0-07 +0-16 +0-10 0 0 -0-13 -0-05 +0-03 +0-06 +0-17 +0-12 $-0.02 \left| -0.26 \left| -0.26 \left| -0.20 \right| -0.03 \right| -0.22 \left| -0.14 \left| -0.03 \right| -0.03 \left| -0.03 \right| -0.09 \right| +0.08 \left| +0.06 \right| +0.09 \left| -0.09 \right| -0.22 \right| \ \textit{liv.}$ +0.03 | -0.12 | -0.19 | -0.08 | +0.13 | -0.01 | +0.16 | -0.02 | +0.18 | +0.29 | +0.04 | +0.09 | -0.18 | +0.06 | +0.18 $-0466 \left| -026 \right| -007 \left| -0.03 \right| -0.047 \left| -0.20 \right| -0.27 \left| +0.02 \right| -0.09 \left| -0.21 \right| +0.12 \left| -0.03 \right| +0.17 \left| +0.06 \right| +0.37 \right| -0.00 \left| -0.00 \right| -0.00 \left| -0.00 \right| -0.00 \left| -0.00 \right| +0.00 \left| +0.00 \right| +0.00 \left| +0.00 \right| +0.00 \left| +0.00 \right| +0.00 \left| -0.00 \right| +0.00 \left| +0.00 \right| +0$ -0.30 +0.08 -0.23 -0.02 -0.01 -0.28 -0.18 -0.31 -0.34 -0.16 +0.04 -0.22 -0.05 +0.07 add. -0.14 -0.04 +0.05 +0.02 +0.01 A. Intercorrelation of thirty-five British Immigrant Lepidopiens arranged in order of mean correlation with all others.
B. Mean intercorrelation in groups of five. C. Significant correlations as in table 35. -0.22 -0.12 +0.13 -0.26 +0.04 0 -0.11 -0.08 -0.15 -0.04 -0.01 0 +0.01 mr. -0 13 -0-03 -0-07 -0-01 $-6.20 \ \, -10.13 \ \, -0.03 \ \, | \ \, -0.19 \ \, | \ \, -0.24 \ \, | \ \, -0.27 \ \, | \ \, -0.30 \ \, | \ \, -0.05 \ \, | \ \, -0.23 \ \, | \ \, -0.36 \ \, | \ \, +0.36 \ \, | \ \, -0.01 \ \, | \ \, prt.$ -0.19 -0.14 +0.00 $-0.20 \left| -0.39 \right| -0.12 \left| -0.24 \right| -0.28 \left| +0.18 \right| +0.01 \left| -0.08 \right| +0.06 \left| +0.12 \right| -0.08 \left| 9at. \right| +0.00 \left| -0.08 \right| +0.00 \left| +0.00 \right| +0.00 \left| -0.00 .12 | +0.05 -0.20 +0.04 -0.16 -0.29 -0.18 -0.25 -0.20 0 -0.28 -0.26 exfr. 05:0-10-02 -0-13 -0-09 +0-08 0 -0.06 -0.35 +0.22 -0.03 -0.30 -0.04 +0.10 +0.12 +0.20 0 +0.07 +0.37 -0.18 +0.16 ant. +0.07 +0.26 +0.05 lath. -0-06 - 0.24 -0-17 -0-06 -0-09 -0-11 -0 23 -0-13 scor. TABLE 33. fraz. -0.06 +0.12 | -0.21 | -0.08 | -0.29 | -0.28 | +0.12 0 -0.07 |-0.15 |-0.26 |-0.07 |+0.01 |-0.17 | euph. -0.07 -0.16 -0.18 +0.02 +0.07 -0.04 +0.08 -0.27 -0.17 -0.08 -0.01 -0.24 +0.03 -0.16 -0.10 -0.01 -0.30 -0.25 -0.13 -0.17 0 0 -0.02 -0.39 -0.15 +0.02 -0.35 +0.40 -0.16 +0.10 naps -0.04 +0.12 -0.29 -0.17 -0.23 0 -001 +0.17 +0.16 brass. +0.14 -0.22 phr. -021 rap. pnd. 10.1 -010 -0.10 -0.12 -0.12 -0.03 90.0+ 100 -0.04 -0-03 -0-03 10-0--0.01 +0.05 10.06 90.04 +0.07 +0.07 +0-0-0 90-0+ 33. M. stellatarum | +0.09 60-0+ 3. D. plexippus 10. V. antiopa 1 D. pulchella 6 C. cuphorbiae 18. L. albrpuncta N. II. convolvatio 8. R. sacraria 7 C. franını 9. A. lathonia 13. II. peltigera 16 C. httornina 25. P. daplidue 26. H. armıgıra 4 P. brassicae 11. L. extranea 32. C. ambigua 15. V. atalanta 23. N. noctuella 14. D. nerit 19 A. atmpos 21. P. gamma 22. L. vitellana 24 P. furnata 31. C. croceus 34. A. ipsilon 2. P. rapae 17 II. ribrio 27. V. candus 5. P. napi 28. L. erigua 29. P. sauru 30. L. salicie 35. C. hyale 12. (1. galis

| +0-13 | -0-17 | -0-17 | -0-07 | -0-12 | -0-08 | +0-16 | -0-18 | -0-22 -0.01 -0.35 -0.21 -0-02 -0-27 -0-29 -0-26 -0-39 -0-21 +0-17 +0-40 -013 -0.07 050 -0.11 -0.06 +0.14 -0.22 | +0.08 | +0.12 | - 0.15 | -0.20 | +0.12 0-01 | -0-24 | -0-29 0.17 -0.28 -0.28 -0.12 -0.08 -0 15 -0 06 0-12 +0-01 10-14 10-13 -003 -03 +0.37 +0.26 -0.26 -0.08 -0.23 0 +0.12 +0.06 +0-07 +0-07 +0.04 -0.01 0 +0.16 Lath. +0.03 +0.03 -021 -0.10 10.0+ -0.16 -0:11 90.0 -0.15 -0.13 -0.15 10.03 -0.09 10.03 10.01 ₹ 0 : 80-0-0 0 . 0.08 -0.18 100 -0:53 900--0.13 -0.09 -0.11 +0.01 | +0.04 | -0.13 | -0.17 90-0 #3:0 1 103 +0.02 2 10.08 -010 -0.16 +0.07 2 +0.05 +0-12 0 0 -0.27 0 -- 0 -0.26 - 0.30 -0-15 -0-28 -0-23 -001 -0530 -0.29 | -0.19 +0-03 | -0-18 | -0-24 +0-04 |-0-16 |-0-03 -0.20 +0.36 pell. -0-01 +0-01 -0.25 90-0--0.30 -0.20 Intercorelation of shirty-five Beliah Immignat Lepidoptens provisionally arranged in even group which are in general politicles correlated without agong but negatively correlated centals. But Stean correlations within and between groups; the number in the right-and bottom corner is the number of intercorrelations on which the sverage in based. -021 10-1 030 01:0-+011 90.0-+000 +0-02 100) +0-39 -0-08 -0-27 -0-20 -0-05 -019 0 |-014 |+014 |-016 -0.03 +0.20 -0.12 -0.03 -0.34 -0-14 -0-04 -0-15 +0-09 -0-28 -0-12 +0-06 --0 22 -0-03 +0-10 -0-04 -0-04 --0.18 -0.03 | +0.03 | -0.38 | -0.02 -0-30 |-0-06 |+0-06 |-0 01 -0-35 -0-04 -0-35 +0-08 -0.20 | +0.22 | -0.18 | -0.24 | -0.23 -0.02 | -0.06 | -0.35 | +0.13 | -0.30 -017; -0-05 +-0-12; - 011; +0.08 +0-08 | -0-22 | -0-08 | --0-11 | 10-04 -0.05 | +0.12 | -0.12 | -0.02 | -0.31 -0.09 +0.02 0 -0.17 +0.07 -022 -041 | 1014 - 035 +0.14 | -0.03 | +0.28 | -0.20 | -0.02 | +0.09 | +0.54 | +0.17 | -0.09 | +0.33 | +0.15 | -0.19 | +0.10 | +0.26 | -0.01 | 0 -0.01 | 0 -0.06 | 0.6. +011 +019 -004 +006 +021 +016 +009 +011 +009 +011 +015 +019 +002 +015 -018 -018 -019 | 00 + 0.09 -0.07 $-0.02 \left| +0.13 \left| +0.12 \right| -0.04 \left| +0.09 \right| -0.07 \left| +0.15 \right| -0.08 \left| +0.01 \right| -0.22 \left| +0.06 \right| +0.18 \right| -0.04 \left| -0.10 \right| +0.29 \right| \ c.t.$ -0.22 - 0.31 -0.28 -0.24 0 | +004 | +016 | +021 | +008 | 0 | -012 | +010 | +007 | -001 | -020 | +003 | +008 | +016 | +029 $+0.12 \left[+0.37 \left[-0.15 \left[+0.36 \left[+0.26 \left[+0.10 \left[+0.10 \left[+0.05 \left[+0.25 \left[-0.26 \left[+0.14 \right]+0.34 \left[-0.06 \left[-0.09 \right]+0.28 \right]+0.28 \right]\right]\right]\right]\right]$ $+0.32\left|+0.15\right|+0.02\left|-0.03\right|+0.08\left|+0.04\right|+0.13\left|-0.11\left|-0.03\right|+0.12\left|-0.04\right|+0.08\left|-0.04\right|-0.07\left|-0.07\right|$ +0.04|+0.12|-0.11|+0.13|+0.05|-0.05|-0.10|-0.15|+0.21|-0.03|+0.12|-0.05|+0.08|-0.06|+0.34|+0.34|+0.12|-0.05|+0.08|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.34|+0.3 $-0.18 \ | +0.17 \ | +0.03 \ | +0.38 \ | +0.04 \ | -0.07 \ | -0.04 \ | -0.16 \ | +0.41 \ | -0.08 \ | -0.13 \ | +0.22 \ | +0.04 \ | -0.12 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.32 \ | +0.04 \ | -0.12 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.31 \ | +0.3$ $-0.02 \left| +0.02 \right| +0.01 \left| +0.01 \right| +0.05 \left| +0.05 \right| -0.28 \left| +0.03 \right| -0.06 \left| +0.26 \right| -0.18 \left| -0.23 \right| +0.36 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +0.09 \left| +0.09 \right| +$ +0.06 | 10.06 | -0.01 | +0.01 | -0.01 | +0.16 | -0.12 | -0.01 | +0.03 | -0.04 | +0.11 | -0.02 | -0.15 | -0.05 | -0.01 $+0.29\mid -0.21\mid +0.15\mid -0.13\mid -0.07\mid +0.09\mid +0.11\mid -0.19\mid -0.11\mid +0.04\mid -0.15\mid -0.21\mid -0.08\mid 0 \quad \mid -0.22\mid -0.22\mid -0.08\mid 0 \quad \mid -0.22\mid -0$ $-0.03 \quad 0.00 \quad -0.20 \quad -0.13 \quad +0.03 \quad +0.01 \quad -0.02 \quad 0 \quad +0.04 \quad -0.16 \quad -0.08 \quad -0.03 \quad +0.22 \quad +0.11 \quad -0.10 \quad -0.08 \quad -$ -0.20 -0.21 -0.02 -0.02 -0.08 -0.21 -0.01 +0.08 -0.20 -0.06 -0.13 -0.39 $-0.08 \left| -0.03 \right| -0.11 \left| -0.15 \right| -0.10 \left| -0.15 \right| -0.15 \left| -0.20 \right| -0.15 \left| -0.13 \right| -0.17 \left| -0.18 \right| -0.15 \left| -0.03 \right| +0.02 \left| +0.01 \right| -0.00 \right| +0.00$ -1:34 | -0-01 | +0-02 | +0-19 | -0-04 | -0-07 | 0 | -0-01 | -0-32 | +0-07 | -0-25 $-0.12 \left[-0.26 \left[-0.32 \left[-0.32 \left[-0.21 \right] + 0.03 \left[-0.02 \left[+0.05 \left[-0.02 \right] + 0.02 \right] + 0.02 \right] + 0.07 \right] \right. \\ 0 \left[-0.06 \left[-0.16 \left[-0.13 \right] + 0.02 \left[-0.02 \right] + 0.02 \right] \right] \\ 0 \left[-0.06 \left[-0.03 \right] + 0.02 \left[-0.03 \left[-0.02 \right] + 0.02 \right] + 0.03 \left[-0.03 \left[-0.03 \right] + 0.03 \right] \right] \\ 0 \left[-0.03 \left[-0.03 \left[-0.03 \right] + 0.03 \left[-0.03$ $-0.19 \mid -0.07 \mid -0.07 \mid -0.07 \mid -0.14 \mid -0.16 \mid -0.39 \mid -0.20 \mid -0.26 \mid -0.02 \mid -0.13 \mid -0.21 \mid -0.07 \mid -0.26 \mid -0.18 \mid -0.26 \mid -0.20 \mid -0.2$ -0.33 -0.07 -0.15 +018 | -049 | +027 | -015 | +006 | -016 | -012 | -042 | -019 | +044 | -027 | -020 | +014 | +048 | 0 +0.04 +0.38 +0.06 +0.44 +0.37 +0.13 -0.14 +0.20 +0.38 +0.05 -0.01 -0.13 +0.32 +0.22 and -0.01 -0.20 +0.08 -0.27 -0.28 -0.09 +0.13 +0.07 -0.17 +0.08 +0.13 -0.08 -0.06 0 ķ. +021 +004 +012 -003 +018 +038 +051 +023 +001 +018 +024 -033 +003 +015 +027 +0.02 +0.30 +0.28 +0.19 +0.08 +0.29 +0.10 +0.17 +0.05 -0.12 Aur -0.25 -0.22 +0.11 +0.28 -0.03 +0.44 +0.18 +0.13 +0.12 -0.04 +0.25 -0.07 -0.04 +014 +020 -004 +002 +012 +031 +031 +035 +010 +009 -0.18 -0.30 +0.14 +0.12 +0.30 +0.03 +0.22 +0.21 +0.43 +0.13 +0.15 +0-13 +0-14 +0-06 +0-42 +0-22 +0-20 +0-26 +0-03 -0.20 ±0 +0.21 +0-24 +0.15 +0.24 +0.12 +0.05 +0.27 +0.61 0 +0.23 +0.07 +0.01 +0.12 +0.28 -0.54 +0.37 +0.30 +0.17 +0.24 +0.03 -0.06 +0.06 -0.30 +0.40 +0.36 +0.07 +0.21 +0.29 +0.05 +0.16 | -0.27 | +0.23 +0-13 | -0-47 | -0-07 +0.17 +0.09 croc. +0.33 +0.24 +0.36 60-0+ -003 hyal. M. stellatarım D. plexippus
D. pulchella L. albipuncta H. convolvuls P. daplidice H. armıgera H. peltigera C. euphorbac C. croceus С. атынаа N. noctuella A. lathonta L. wtelling V. cardus A. spailon P. gamma P. fuviata C. Istornica V. atalantu L. extranea R. sacrara V. antropa P. brassicae Р. япипа H. celerio L. exigua A. adropos L. salices C. fra. ini P. rapae P. naps D. neras C. galss _

+0-14 pul

It seemed likely that some species would fall into groups and that others would be isolated cases, on the axiom that things like another must be themselves alike, but things unlike another need have no relation to one another.

By arranging the species in order of their average correlation with all other

species, an indication was given of the arrangement of the groups.

The disposition of the signs can be seen from Table 33, B, where the average intercorrelations of the species taken in fives are shown. Those species in Section A show an average positive correlation, but wherever else they occur, i.e. in Sections B, D, G, K, P and V the average correlation is negative.

From Table 33, C, a clear-cut group is seen in Sections O, T, Z, U, AA, and BB, consisting of the species from *P. gamma* to *C. hyale* inclusive, within which there are high positive correlations but which show negative correlations with.

other species.

An attempt was then made to form the remaining species into groups

according to their relationship with themselves and with the first group.

Table 34, A, shows the species provisionally arranged in seven groups. Group 1, already defined, consists of fifteen species which are positively intercorrelated but negatively correlated with species outside the group.

Group 2 is a somewhat unsatisfactory group of five species, the members of which show positive correlations with Group 1 but show little or no relation between themselves, except in the cases of *H. celerio* and *C. livornica*, where a significant correlation is shown. *V. atalanta* is highly negatively correlated with all but *A. atropos* in the group.

Groups 3, 4, 5 and 6 consist of species which show negative relationship with other groups. In Group 4, *L. unipuncta* and *N. peltigera* are taken together since they are highly positively correlated with themselves and with *N. noctuella*, and show somewhat similar relationships with other species.

In Group 7 are five species which form a group much less evident than Group 1 but which show more interrelationships than do other species outside Group 1.

Group 8 is another clear-cut group consisting of the three "Whites." These species are markedly negatively correlated with other species, but show their highest positive correlation between themselves.

Group 9 consists of two species negatively correlated with other species but showing a slight positive correlation between themselves.

Groups 8 and 9, although both negatively correlated with other species, show no interrelation between themselves.

Table 34, B, shows the average correlations of the species within the groups. In cases where there is only one species within the group, there is no average correlation within that group, and the appropriate space is left blank.

It would be expected with almost 600 correlations that, by chance, there would be 30 values significant at 1 in 20 level, and 6 at the 1 in 100 level. Actually as seen from Table 32, C, there are 118 values at the 1 in 20 level, and of these 52 are significant at 1 in 100 level.

This result is in itself evidence of the real biological nature of the values.

Fluctuations in abundance of correlated groups.

The material was available for a study of the question of periodicity in migrant Lepidoptera. Since the species tended to form groups, the group was taken as a unit. It was considered that the "good" and "bad" years within a single group would be accentuated by this means.

Table 35 shows the average abundance indices of the principal Groups 1, 2, 7 and of all species from 1857 to 1931 (allowance being made for species of shorter duration).

TABLE 35.

Mean annual abundance of certain groups of associated immigrants, and of all immigrants, 1857-1931.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Group	1 (15 sp	ecies)								***************************************	
1850	1	·						2.8	3.6	3.1	
1860	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.3	2.8	1.4	2.5	$3 \cdot 2$	2.0	
1870	1.9	1.6	$2 \cdot 0$	1.0	1.0	1.5	1.5	2.4	$2 \cdot 2$	$2\cdot 3$	
1880	1.5	1.3	1.4	$2 \cdot 2$	$2 \cdot 4$	1.8	1.6	1.1	1.9	$2 \cdot 1$	
1890	1.7	1.5	3.5	$3 \cdot 1$	2.7	$2 \cdot 2$	1.5	2.5	2.8	4.0	
1900	4.4	$3 \cdot 3$	$2 \cdot 6$	2.5	$2 \cdot 3$	1.1	$3 \cdot 2$	1.6	$2 \cdot 3$	1.2	
1910	1.1	$2 \cdot 3$	2.5	$2 \cdot 3$	1.5	1.5	1.0	1.9	1.5	1.7	
1920	2.3	$2 \cdot 3$	$2 \cdot 1$	1.9	1.6	1.1	$2 \cdot 2$	1.6	3.3	2.0	
1930	1.7	$2\cdot 3$									
	2 (5 spec	ies)					**************************************				
1850								$3 \cdot 3$	3.3	2.8	
1860	2.8	1.3	2.5	1.3	$2 \cdot 0$	3.5	$2 \cdot 0$	$3 \cdot 3$	4.()	3.0	
1870	3.5	3.0	3.0	$2 \cdot 3$	1.8	2.0	3.0	3.8	3.8	2.5	
1880	2.0	$2 \cdot 0$	$2 \cdot 2$	2.6	3.0	3.2	2.4	$2 \cdot 2$	2.8	2.0	
1890	1.6	2.0	3.4	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.0	2.6	3.2	3.8	
1900	4.2	30	3.4	2.8	2.6	3.0	3.2	1.4	2.8	2.8	
1910	1.6	2.8	$3 \cdot 2$	2.8	2.6	2.0	1.4	2.2	1.8	1.6	
1920	3.2	$2 \cdot 2$	$2 \cdot 4$	2.0	2.8	$2 \cdot 0$	1.8	2.2	$2 \cdot 4$	1.8	
1930	2.6	2.8									
	7 (5 spec	ies)									
1850								3.0	3.4	3.2	
1860	2.4	$1\cdot 2$	1.0	1.2	1.6	$2 \cdot 2$	1.8	1.6	3.8	1.6	
1870	3.0	2.4	4.2	1.8	$2 \cdot 2$	2.4	$2 \cdot 2$	1.4	$2 \cdot 2$	1.2	
1880	3.2	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.6	1.4	$2 \cdot 0$	2.8	3.0	
1890	1.4	1.0	1.8	1.8	1.4	2.4	24	1.4	1.6	1.8	
1900	2.4	$2 \cdot 6$	1.8	1.4	1.4	2.0	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.4	
1910	1.6	1.8	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.2	1.8	1.6	1.6	
1920	1.0	$2 \cdot 0$	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.6	1.8	
1930	1.4	1.4									
All spec	ies (35 s	pecies)				- Witness Teachers	·				
1850		-						2.8	$3 \cdot 2$	2.8	
1860	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.6	2.4	1.4	$2 \cdot 2$	2.9	2.0	
1870	2.0	2.0	$2 \cdot 3$	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	$2 \cdot 3$	2.0	1.8	
1880	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.8	2.0	$2 \cdot 1$	17	1.7	2.1	1.9	
1890	1.6	1.8	3.0	2.5	2.2	2.2	2.1	23	2.5	3.0	
1900	3.5	2.7	2.2	$2 \cdot 2$	2.1	1.4	2.8	1-6	2.0	1.6	
1910	1.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.4	2.1	1.6	1.8	
1920	$2 \cdot 2$	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.4	2.1	1.5	2.6	1.7	
1930	1.9	$\mathbf{\tilde{2}} \cdot \mathbf{\tilde{0}}$								- •	

A 10-year running mean was calculated from these averages and shown in Table 36.

Fig. 60 shows a histogram of the average abundance indices of Groups 1, 2, 7 and of all species, together with their respective 10-year running means in broken lines. The 10-year running mean of Group 1 shows a peak around the year 1900, but otherwise the average is fairly uniform.

Group 2 10-year mean also shows a peak about the year 1908, with a minor peak at about the year 1868.

Group 7 has a slight peak around the year 1872, with a general falling off in

abundances to 1931.

Table 36.

Ten-year running mean of average annual abundance of certain groups of associated immigrants, and of all immigrants, 1857–1931.

									·			·		
Group	1857-	1862	1867	1872	1877-	1882	1887	1892	1897-	1902-	1907 -	1912 -	1917-	1922-
	1866	1871	1876	1881	1886	1891	1896	1901	1906	1911	1916	1921	1926	19 31
1.	2 1	1.9	1.8	17	19	1 7	2·0	3.0	2·9	2.0	1 7	1.9	1.9	2-0
2.	2·5	2.8	2.9	26	28	2 1	2·7	3.3	3·2	2.6	2 3	2.3	2.2	2-3
7.	2 1	2.0	2.5	22	18	1 8	2·0	2.0	1 8	1.5	1 4	1.5	1.6	1-5
All species	2 1	2.0	2.0	20	20	1 8	2·1	2.6	2 5	2.0	1 8	1.9	1.9	1-9

The 10-year running mean of all species shows a steady curve with a slight peak at about 1900.

It appears evident from the diagrams that there is no indication of an 11-year cycle, that could fit in with the Sun Spot Cycle, and also that the

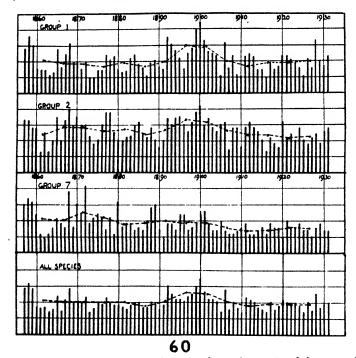


Fig. 60.—Average annual frequency, and 10 years' running mean of the same, for certain groups of associated immigrants, and for all the 35 immigrants studied.

records show no appreciable falling off or increase during the years 1857-1931. Even during the years 1914-1918, when one might have expected a decided lack of interest in the activities of insects, the average recorded abundances show no evidence of it.

Relationship between the groups and the geographical range of the species.

It is a feature of migrant Lepidoptera that they are widespread in their distribution. In most cases, the British immigrants range from N. Europe to N. Africa. However, there are a few species to be mentioned which are more restricted in their range. It can be shown that where a species has a less ubiquitous range, its position in the groups can often be accounted for, and that where species have a common source, they are related in the same group.

Thus D. plexippus, the only immigrant from America and from the west, shows a decided negative relationship with other species (Table 19). It is doubtfully placed with D. pulchella in a group only since this latter species has a similar relationship with other species, and there is a slight positive correlation between the two. The probability is that the factors which determine the arrival of D. plexippus in Britain are of quite a different nature from those determining the arrival of migrants from the east and south.

In Group 8, the Pierids show a positive relationship between themselves. This could be accounted for by the fact that the species are indigenous in Britain, and that their migrations originate from a common source. Accumulated evidence lends weight to the view that they originate in northern Europe.

In Group 7, the only species with a limited distribution appear to be V. antiopa and C. fraxini. These species show a significant positive intercorrelation. It is noteworthy that migrations of V. antiopa originate in Scandinavia and that C. fraxini is distributed over northern Europe and does not appear south of N. Italy. This point is reflected in the number of negative correlations shown by these species with members of Group 1, which contains species from the Mediterranean region and N. Africa.

In Group 1 appear the butterflies from the Mediterranean region, namely C. hyale, C. croceus, V. cardui and P. daplidice. In addition, M. stellatarum, a day-flying hawk-moth, is included. V. atalanta is also a Mediterranean species and shows positive correlations with Group 1. However, the average correlation of this species with all others (— 0.03) is below the lowest average of Group 1, and excludes it from this Group.

The distribution of the other species is too general to permit a more detailed classification at this stage.

XII. SUGGESTED CLASSIFICATION OF DENSITY OF MIGRATION.

By C. B. WILLIAMS.

In describing migrations observers have used various terms to indicate the density of the flight "thin," "sparse," "copious." "obvious," "thick." "snow storm" etc. etc. Others have stated the number of butterflies present at any one time on a given area, or, more frequently, the numbers passing across a front of a given width in a given time. The last is the easiest figure to obtain with any accuracy.

It seems desirable to have some simple scale of grading by which the whole range from very thin to very thick flights could be classified. For this one must first have some idea of the extreme limits of density which such a scale must cover.

I have myself produced evidence of migration of white butterflies in Harpenden from observing about 20 butterflies passing in 20 minutes over a front of about 100 yards. Such a movement would only be noticed by very careful watch by an expert observer and even then the evidence only becomes convincing

when several periods of 20 minutes' watching have given similar results. It is undoubtedly near the lower limit of demonstration.

At the other end of the scale are snowstorm migrations in which the butterflies are too numerous to count even on a short front. In one flight of Andronymus neander in East Africa which was just above the limit of accurate counting I estimated at the peak flight that 500 per minute were crossing a 22 yards front, or about 2300 per minute on a 100 yards front. Denser flights than these are known. It seems therefore that the numbers passing per 100 yards per minute are likely to range from 1 to perhaps 10,000 insects. It was decided that a convenient classification of this range would be a geometric one with seven groups with the following mean numbers:—1: 4.6: 21.5: 100: 464: 2154: 10,000 (Table 37).

Table 37.

Proposed classification of density of migrations with numbers that would be observed on fronts of different lengths in different periods of time.

Density of front	Duration of observation in minutes										
10	5	10	15	20							
10	2-11	5-21	7-32	9-43							
II	1-5	2-10	3-16	5-21							
11	1-2	1-5	2-8	3-10							
\$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c	1	1-2	1-3	1-4 1-2							
10	12-50	22-100	33-150	44-200							
10	6-25	11-50	17-75	22-100							
111	3-12	6-25	9-37	11-50							
III 100 11 46 50 6-23 25 3-11 10 1-4 5 12 IV 100 47 215 50 24-107 25 12-53 10 5-21 5 3-10 V 100 216-1,000 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 50-2,1160	2.5	3-10	4-15	5-20							
S0	1-2	1 5	2-7	3-10							
V 100 216-1,000 50 24-107 V 100 216-1,000 50 108 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-1,640 50 500 2,320 25 501-1,160	51-232	101-464	151-696	201-928							
10	26 116	51 -232	76-348	101-464							
TV 100 47 215 50 24-107 25 12-53 10 5-21 5 3-10 V 100 216-1,000 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160	13-58 6-23	26-116 11-46	38-174 16-69	51-232 21-92							
V 100 24-107 V 100 216-1,000 50 108 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-1,640 500 235 -251-1,160	3 11	6-23	8-34	11-46							
V 100 216-1,000 50 108 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 50 118 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 26 251-1,160	233-1,077	465-2,154	697-3,231	929-4,308							
V 100 216-1,000 50 108 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160	117-538	233-1,077	349-1,615	465-2,154							
V 100 216-1,000 50 108 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-1,640 50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160	59-269	117-538	175-807	233-1,077							
V 100 216-1,000 50 108 500 25 54-250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 5251-1,160	24-107	47-215	70-323	93-430							
50 108 500 25 54 250 10 22 100 5 11 50 VI	12-53	24-107	35-161	47-215							
VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 251-1,160 VI 200 2,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160		2,155-10,000	3,232-15,000	4,309-20,00							
VI 100 2.3200 VI 100 1.001-1.640 50 500 2.320 25 251-1.160	539 -2,500	1,078-5,000	1,616-7,500	2,155-10,000							
VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160	270 1,250	539-2,5(n)	808-3,750	1,078-5,000							
VI 100 1,001-4,640 50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160	108 -500 54-250	216-1,000	324-1,5(1)	431-2,000							
50 500 2,320 25 251-1,160	04-200	108-500	162-750	2161,000							
25 251-1,160		10,001-46,400	15,001-69,600	20,001-92,800							
		5,001-23,200	7,501-34,800	10,001-46,400							
1 10 1 101-909	0 1,251-5,800 501-2,320	2,501-11,600 1,001-4,640	3,751-17,400	5,001-23,200 2,001-9,280							
5 51-232	251 1,160	501-2,320	1,501-6,960 751-3,480	1,001-4,640							
	bove group VI.	-		-,							

¹ For fronts measured in metres reduce observed numbers by 10% before finding place in the above table.

It will be seen that each grade mean is 4.6 times the previous grade and the ratio of the 4th to the 1st and the 7th to the 4th is 100. The limits between these have been calculated and the general characteristics of each are as follows:—

Density I. Extremely thin. (1)—2·2 insects per 100 yards per minute. Up to about 2275 insects per mile front per hour. Only noticeable by careful watch by an expert.

Density II. Very thin. 2·3—(4·6)—10 insects per 100 yards per minute. About 2275—10,000 insects per mile front per hour. Should be seen by an expert and any careful naturalist on the look-out.

Density III. Thin. 10—(21.5)—46 insects per 100 yards per minute. Ten to fifty thousand per mile front per hour. Should be obvious to any

observant field naturalist.

Density IV. Definite. 47—(100)—215 insects per 100 yards per minute. 50,000 to 227,000 per mile front per hour. Should be obvious to any normally observant individual.

Density V. Thick. 216—(464)—1000 insects per 100 yards per minute. 227,000 up to a million per mile front per hour. Obvious to the general

public.

Density VI. Very thick. 1000—(2154)—4640 insects per 100 yards per minute. One to five million per mile front per hour. Gets into newspapers.

Density VII. Snowstorm. 4650—(10,000) or more insects per 100 yards per minute. Over five million per mile front per hour. "Stops motor cars." "Interferes with pedestrians." "Like a snowstorm." Newspaper headlines.

As observations are frequently taken over fronts of varying width and for varying periods of time I have drawn up in Table 37 the numbers for each grade to be observed crossing fronts of several different lengths in times from 1 minute to 20 minutes. From this any data given could rapidly be classified into the corresponding grade. If observations are taken on a front measured in metres the observed numbers must be reduced by 10% before comparing them with the table, as one yard is approximately 10% less than one metre.

It is recognised, of course, that none of the observations made in the field is really accurate. The front is seldom measured exactly, the time is often guessed, sometimes measured with an ordinary watch, and very seldom with a stop-watch, and finally the numbers counted get more and more inaccurate as the density increases. It is doubtful if more than 100 insects per minute can be counted with accuracy, so that in dense flights the front over which the count is made should be reduced to five or ten yards.

The other inaccuracies remain, but in view of the fact that in each group the maximum possible is over four times the minimum, a large error will have to be made before the wrong group is estimated. If a case is near the borderline it is probably of little practical importance to which group it is assigned.

The adoption of this system would give a greater definition to terminology and might enable more simple comparisons of intensity to be made, as has already been done with a similar classification of the British migrants by Cockbill (see p. 108).

XIII. SUMMARY.

I. The report gives a general account of recent progress along various lines in the study of the migration of Lepidoptera particularly in the last ten years since the publication of Williams' *Migration of Butterflies* in 1930.

II. Among interesting early records of Butterfly Migration is an account

of one seen in the year 1508 near Calais in France.

III. A detailed history of the abundance each year for over 100 years is given for about forty of the principal British Immigrant Butterflies and Moths.

A geometric scale is adopted and all species are graded each year in one of six levels of abundance, the scale for each species being in proportion to its maximum occurrence. As much as possible of the early literature has been examined and the records are believed to be sufficiently complete to justify discussion. A summary of the results will be found in Table 4 and figs. 1-4. The monthly distribution of most species has been worked out (Table 3) and in one or two it has been possible to show a relation between early appearance and abundance during the summer.

IV. An analysis of nearly 400 records of insects from ten lightships off the E. and S.E. coasts of Britain gave a list of 140 species of Lepidoptera of which 35 occurred on several occasions or in numbers which make it unlikely that their presence was accidental. Thirteen of these were known or suspected migrants. Others high up in the list were P. meticulosa, A. monoglypha, E. similis and A. c-nigrum. The flights were predominantly to the north and north-west from May to mid-August and to the east or south-south-east after mid-August.

V. Mr. and Mrs. Hodges of Florida made an almost continuous daily watch on the movement of butterflies for nearly two years. Their results are analysed. They show:—(1) a regular migration of A. monuste each year, at first to the south and then a sudden reversal of direction during May or June; (2) an almost continuous southerly movement of P. eubule and T. lisa at all times of the year; (3) regular movements to the north in spring, and/or autumn movements to the south in several other species, including Danaus plexippus and D. berenice, Dione vanillae, Papilio cresphontes and Eudamus proteus.

VI (1). The migrations of *D. plexippus* are discussed from several points of view. A study of geographical variations in America indicates a northerly migratory race in N. America; a southerly migratory race in S. America, south of the Amazon; and a non-migratory race between these two in the northern portion of S. America and many of the West Indian islands (fig. 18).

Downes observed the overwintering of *D. plexippus* in California and considers that most hibernating areas are very close to the sea and nearly all suitable spots are occupied to some extent. The males are sexually mature on emerging from the chrysalis in the autumn, pairing taking place throughout autumn, winter and spring; but the females do not normally mature eggs till the spring.

A large number of new records of migration for North and South America are discussed and figs. 20 and 21 summarise what is now known of the movements of this butterfly in N. America. A full list of the British and European records of appearance of *D. plexippus* is given, and a number have been examined, all except one of which are of the N. American race.

VI (2 11). Summaries are given of the present information on the migration of several other butterflies from America, Europe, Africa and Australia. Fig. 25 shows the known flights of *P. eubule* in the U.S.A. and West Indies. A regular to and fro movement is indicated. Plate 3 shows a migration of *Eunica monima* in progress in Mexico. A full account is given of recent extensive migrations of *Pierus brassicae* in England, including a flight at Harpenden that continued to the south for over three weeks. New records of *V. cardui* in West Africa indicate a definite migrating season south of the desert belt in September and October. New records are summarised for *Glycestha aurota*, *G. creona*, *G. java*, *C. florella* and several others.

VII. An account is given of some recent experiments in marking butterflies. Practically no recoveries have been made at a distance but much can be learnt from the rate of disappearance of the marked individuals from the locality of

marking. A satisfactory technique is described. It is important to be able

to distinguish individuals of the same species marked on the same date.

VIII. Orientation might possibly be by wind, sight, or perception of the earth's magnetic field. These three are discussed. It is shown that an individual insect might determine the direction of the wind without the use of sight, but that there is no evidence that the direction of the wind determines the direction of migration. Recent work on orientation by sight is discussed in relation to migration. Experiments on young locusts showed no evidence of appreciation of a powerful magnetic field.

IX. Evidence for the occurrence of a return flight in migrant Lepidoptera is shown to be increasing. The question of the fundamental difference between migrations with and without a return flight is reviewed, and the evolutionary difficulty of the persistence of migration without a return flight is emphasised.

X. A significant positive correlation between the occurrence in unusual numbers of V. cardui in Europe and N. America is shown to exist. This

supports the similar results previously obtained from C. lineata.

XI. Intercorrelations between 35 British Immigrant Lepidoptera have been calculated and discussed. The average correlation is slightly positive (+ 0·12). By sorting the species it has been possible to find several groups the members of which are positively correlated within their own groups, but usually negatively correlated with other groups (Table 34). The first of them is quite definite and contains fifteen closely associated species. The second is less definite. Group 7 contains five species and Group 8 the three *Pieris* species. To a certain extent the grouping follows the geographical range of the species.

The average frequency of the principal groups each year for 78 years is given

in fig. 60 and shows no evidence of periodicity.

XII. A classification is suggested of the density of any flight as measured by the number of insects crossing a definite front in a definite time. This is a series of seven grades the numbers in which are in geometric proportion.

XIV. The Bibliography includes all references to the migration of butterflies that have been traced in the past ten years and which are not included in the

previous Bibliography given in Williams 1930b.

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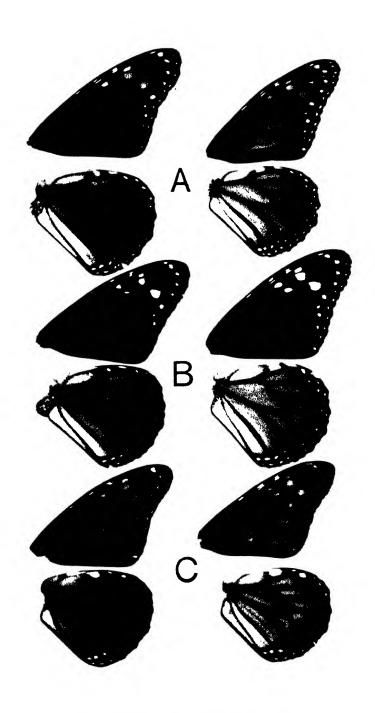
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PLATE 1.

The geographical races of Danaus plexippus, males to left, females to right—A, the North American form D. plexippus plexippus: B, the Central American form D. plexippus nigrippus: C, the South American form D. plexippus erippus.

PLATE 2.

- Fig. 2. Monarchs hibernating at Pacific grove in the winter of 1938-39. Photo by J. A. Downes.
 - 3. Eunica monima migrating in Mexico in June 1940. Photo by D. B. Legteres



GEOGRAPHICAL RACES OF Danaus plexippus.



Williams and Others Migration of Lepidoptera.

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ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE LARVAE OF THE VESPIDAE (HYMENOPTERA)

By J. A. REID, A.R.C.S., B.Sc.

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Read i.iv.1942.

WITH 137 TEXT-FIGURES.

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Introduction and Acknowledgements, with a List of the Species Considered.

This work has been carried on in the department of Entomology of the Imperial College of Science and Technology under the direction of Dr. O. W. Richards, and I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to him for the indispensable advice and guidance which he has given me.¹

The purpose of this work was to attempt to show whether or not it is possible to construct tables for the identification of the larvae of the diplopterous wasps of the family Vespidae; and incidentally to describe and figure a number of species of Vespid larvae so far undescribed, and to note any evidence concerning the relationships, one to another, of the various groups within the family Vespidae.

A list of the species dealt with in the text is given below. Those marked with an asterisk (*) are species of which only figures and descriptions have been examined; the remainder are those of which I have had specimens, and of these, all but the specimens of Vespa crabro L., and Vespula vulgaris (L.), were collected by Dr. Richards in British Guiana in 1937.

¹ In the present circumstances it has not been possible to communicate with authors resident abroad and it is therefore necessary to express here an acknowledgement to them for the use of certain figures which have been redrawn for this paper.

EUMENINAE.

Odynerus Latreille.

- * labiatus Haliday.
- * humeralis Haliday.
- * vespiformis Haliday.
- * scabriusculus Spinola.
- * subpetiolatus Saussure.
- * molinae Saussure.

Subgenus Hoplopus.

- * laevipes Shuckard.
- * spinipes (L.).
- * poecilus Saussure.

Subgenus Ancistrocerus.

- * parietum (L.).
- * oviventris Wesmael.

Subgenus Microdynerus.

* nugdunensis Saussure.

Rhygchium Spinola.

* oculatum (Fabricius).

Alastor Lepeletier.

* atropos Lepeletier.

Eumenes Latreille.

- * unquiculata (Villers).
- * arbustorum (Panzer).
- * pomiformis (Fabricius).

VESPINAE.

* norwegica norwegica (Fabricius).

Vespa L.

crabro L.

Vespula Thomson.

vulgaris (L.).

- * germanica (Fabricius).
- * rufa (L.).

Polistes Latreille.

carnifex (Fabricius).
crinitus Felton var. multicolor

(Olivier).

POLISTINAE.

canadensis (L.) var. cinctus Lepeletier.

- * foederatus Kohl.
- * gallicus (L.).

POLYBIINAE.

Polybia Lepeletier.

catillifex Mocbius. bistriata (Fabricius). rejecta (Fabricius). micans Ducke.

Protopolybia Ducke.

minutissima (Spinola). sedula (Saussure).

Stelopolybia Ducke.

infernalis (Saussure).

Nectarinia Shuckard.

* scutellaris (Fabricius).

* lecheguana (Latreille).

Metapolybia Ducke.

cingulata (Fabricius).

Mischocyttarus Saussure.

lecointei (Ducke).

carbonarius (Saussure).

injucundus (Saussure).

collarellus Richards.

superus Richards.

metoecus Richards.

oecothrix Richards.

synoecus Richards.

cerberus Ducke var. acheron

Richards.

M. sp. 10.

surinamensis (Saussure).

Apoica Lepeletier.

* pallida (Olivier).

Synoeca Saussure.

sp.

Belonogaster Saussure.

* sp.

ZETHINAE.

Zethus Fabricius.

Discoelius Latreille.

* dicomboda (Spinola).

* merula Curtis.

The present paper is only an attempt to show whether or not it is feasible to make keys for the identification of the larvae of the Vespidae, and the keys given were constructed for this purpose. The number of species examined is so comparatively small that nearly all the conclusions are tentative. When summarising the characters of a genus or subfamily, the characters are placed in what seems to be the order of importance, the first few being the more important and usually the diagnostic ones.

EXTERNAL MORPHOLOGY OF A TYPICAL VESPID LARVA.

The larvae of the Vespidae are nearly all much alike in general appearance, being soft, entirely apodous grubs with few striking characters; this makes it necessary to examine the finer structure of the head, when searching for means to classify them. The body comprises a head with simple mouth-parts, three thoracic segments and ten abdominal ones. There are ten pairs of spiracles. The head capsule is roughly circular in outline when viewed from in front, and about twice as wide, from side to side, as it is deep from front to back; it may be brown and partially sclerotised or colourless and almost as soft as the body integument. There are a number of structures upon the head capsule which can usually be seen, at least after staining and mounting (see fig. 20).

The epicranial suture:—this is only visible in its entirety upon some of the more sclerotised heads, such as those of species of *Vespa*; it is shaped like an inverted Y.

The stem of the Y, or median suture, can usually be seen, at least near the top of the head, and runs from the back of the head capsule to a point about half-way down the head, where it forks into the two frontal sutures, which terminate in the upper margin of the clypeus. The area enclosed between these two frontal sutures and the clypeus is the frons. The lower border of the clypeus is formed by its junction with the labrum which depends from it; the width of the clypeus is about equal to the distance between the bases of the mandibles. Most often the only clypeal sutures clearly to be seen are the clypeo-labral and the lateral ones, up to the point where the latter run into the anterior tentorial pits, as they usually do. The anterior tentorial pits are small deep depressions, always visible in stained preparations; they are the points at which the tentorium is attached (see fig. 51).

The antennae are very simple in structure, being circular areas, apparently thinner than the surrounding parts of the head capsule and marked out by a thickened peripheral ring of cuticle. Each antenna bears three minute sensillae and each of these is in the form of a tiny circle with a minute raised point in the middle. The position of the antennae is as shown in fig. 1. The temporal bands always occupy the positions shown in fig. 1 and are areas differentiated from the rest of the head capsule in much the same way as are the antennae; their function, if any, is unknown, but they are not confined to Vespid larvae, being present upon the heads of many other Aculeate larvae, though apparently not on those of the honey bee. This is unfortunate, for the anatomy of this larva has been fully described by Nelson (1924). Kirmayer (1909) in his study of Vespula vulgaris (L.) merely refers to them as temporal bands.

The mouth-parts consist of the mandibles, which are attached to the head capsule, and the labial and maxillary lobes. The mandibles fit into emarginations of the head capsule at each lower corner of the latter, and are moved by muscles attached to a pair of apodemes, which project from the base of each mandible into the head. The maxillae are a pair of soft lobes, continuous with, and situated on, either side of the labium. Each maxilla bears a pair of conical papillae. On top of each papilla is a variable number of small sensillae, similar to those in the antennary rings. The relationship between these papillae and the structures of the adult maxillae is still a little uncertain. Grandi (1935: 39) interprets the more external papilla as homologous with the adult maxillary palp, and the more internal one as homologous with the external lobe (galea) of the adult maxilla. For the sake of simplicity the noncommittal term papilla will be used in this work. The labium consists chiefly of the roughly circular mental lobe, centrally placed; the area between the foot of this lobe and the thorax may perhaps be regarded as the submentum. The mentum bears a pair of papillae similar to those upon the maxillae; behind these papillae, that is nearer the mouth, is a transverse slit which is the opening of the salivary gland. Between each labial papilla and the opening of the salivary gland, there is usually a single sensory bristle (see fig. 22), though there are several in the Polistinae and in the Eumeninae apparently there is none.

The sense organs of the head are mostly simple sensory bristles, each articulated basally to a small circular area of membrane. These bristles are constantly present upon the labium, the maxillae, and the labrum, and occur also upon the head capsule, where they are subject to great variation in numbers and size from species to species. In addition, upon the upper surface of the labrum and upon the lower surface or palate, another kind of sensory structure occurs; these are small rounded papillae and upon the summit of each is borne a single minute short sensilla or else a sensory bristle; the sensilla or bristle is articulated as already described. These sensillae are referred to in the text as conical sensillae.

The sensory bristles together with the antennae, and possibly the temporal bands, appear to complete the sensory equipment of the head capsule. Certain small pits or punctations, which can sometimes be seen upon the head capsule in certain fixed positions, mark the attachment of muscles, which are probably concerned with the working of the pharynx; these punctations assume the form of large smoothly rounded depressions, in such genera as *Polybia* which have unsclerotised head capsules.

The thorax occupies from an eighth to a quarter of the total length of the body, and is composed of the usual three segments; the third segment is the widest. There are two thoracic spiracles, situated between the pro- and meso- and the meso- and meta-thoracic segments, but the segmentation of the thorax on either side, at the level of the spiracles, is not very clear. In the full-grown larva, upon the ventral thoracic surface there can often be seen ten small circular areas, more transparent than the rost of the integument, each one marking the position of a wing or limb bud underneath.

The abdomen, consisting of ten segments, makes up about four-fifths of the bulk of the body. It tapers posteriorly, the first segment being commonly the widest one of the body. Spiracles are borne in the mid-lateral line on the first eight segments, towards the anterior edge of each segment. The anus is a transverse opening upon the tenth segment, the shape of this segment varying considerably. There is a variable number of protuberances upon the abdominal and thoracic segments; when fully developed they consist of a dorsal series and

a lateral series. The dorsal series is composed of low transverse ridges in the middle of each abdominal segment, close on either side of the mid-dorsal line, strongest on segment I of the abdomen and usually not discernible on segment VIII and IX. The lateral series is formed of low circular humps in the middle of each segment, forming a line below the spiracles; weakly developed on the meso- and meta-thorax, strongest on segment I of the abdomen and diminishing in size posteriorly. These protuberances appear to be bare of the tiny sensory bristles which are sparsely scattered over the body cuticle, and also of the closely set microscopic denticles, with which the cuticle is normally covered. It has been conjectured that the protuberances may perhaps help to keep the larvae of the social forms in their cells, but this does not explain why the larvae of the Eumeninae also possess them.

KEY TO THE SUBFAMILIES EXAMINED.

The following table for separating the subfamilies dealt with I feel to be trustworthy so far as it goes, but no doubt an examination of species belonging to some of the other subfamilies, such as the ZETHINAE or ROPALIDIINAE, would necessitate modifying it. Complete lists of the characters discovered for each subfamily will be found in the appropriate sections farther on; only the more diagnostic characters are employed in the key.

Table for the determination of the subfamilies Eumeninae, Vespinae, Polistinae, and Polybinae.

1(4). All the lower margin of the clypeus is clearly ventral to a line drawn between the points of insertion of the mandibles into the head capsule.

2(3). The extreme width of the labrum is as great as, or greater than, the width of the clypeus where this joins the labrum. The distance between an antenna and the base of the nearest mandible is less than the distance from the mid-point on the anterior edge of the labrum to a line drawn between the bases of the mandibles

3(2). The extreme width of the labrum is always less than the width of the clypeus where this joins the labrum. The distance between an antenna and the base of the nearest mandible is greater than the distance from the mid-point on the anterior edge of the labrum to a line drawn between the bases of the mandibles

4(1). At least the median point of the lower margin of the clypeus is dorsal to a line drawn between the points of insertion of the mandibles into the head capsule.

5(6). With a group of several sensory bristles behind each labial papilla. The

maxillary lobes prominent and almost spherical . . . Polistinae. 6(5). With only one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla. The maxillary lobes not more prominent than usual and not nearly spherical

POLYBIINAE.

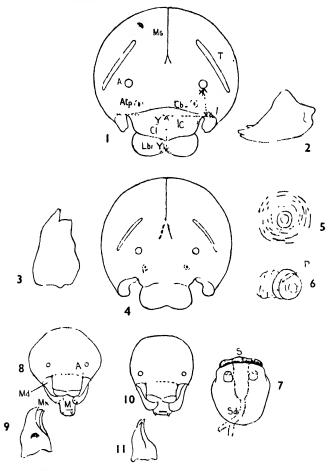
EUMENINAE.

No larvae of this subfamily were available, so that conclusions regarding the larval characters are based only on the examination of drawings and descriptions; these were of 17 species of EUMENINAE, by G. Grandi, L. Micheli and F. Claude-Joseph.

Attention has been confined to discovering possible subfamily characters, and no attempt has been made to separate the genera dealt with.

Characters of the subfamily EUMENINAE.

The ventral margin of the clypeus, from which the labrum depends, is ventral to the level of the bases of the mandibles.



Figs. 1-11.—Rhygchium oculatum. 1, Front view of head capsule. A, antenna: Atp, anterior tentorial pit: C, clypeus: Cb, upper margin of clypeus: Cl, lower margin of clypeus: Lbr, labrum: Ms, median suture: XX and YY, see p. 290: T, temporal band; 2, Mandible; outer ventral view; 3-7. Eumenes unguiculata. 3, Mandible; outer dorsal view; 4, Head capsule; 5, Spiracle; surface view, showing concentric markings on the cuticle; 6, Spiracle and part of trachea, dissected out. P, processes guarding opening of the trachea; 7, Mentum. S, striate ridge of opening of salivary gland: Sd, duct of salivary gland. Figs. 1-7 adapted from Grandi. 8-9. Odynerus spinipes. 8, Head. A, antenna: M, mentum: Md, mandible: Mx, maxilla; 9, Mandible. Side view; 10-11. O. oviventris. 10, Head; 11, Mandible; side view. Figs. 8-11 adapted from Micheli.

The maximum width of the labrum is greater than, or not less than, the width of the clypeus where this joins the labrum.

The distance between an antenna and the base of the nearest mandible is less than the distance from the mid-point on the anterior edge of the labrum, to a line drawn between the bases of the mandibles (see fig. 1 XX and YY).

In those figures in which it is shown, the dorsal margin of the clypeus is ventral to, or occasionally (*Eumenes unguiculata* Villers) level with, the anterior tentorial pits. (This can be seen in 6 out of the 9 species of which figures have been examined.)

The palate always bears numerous coarse spinous processes, distinct from any sensillae that may be present (fig. 17).

The following characters are also present in varying degrees of constancy:-

It seems from examination of the figures, that the single sensory bristle (many in the species of *Polistes*), which is always found in the other subfamilies directly behind each labial papilla, between the papilla and the opening of the salivary gland, is missing in this subfamily. Possibly the bristles are very small and have been overlooked, but that this has happened in every species figured is unlikely. There is a clear drawing of the labium of *Eumenes arbustorum* Panzer by Soika (see fig. 16) in which the bristles are exactly represented, but there is no indication of one behind the labial papilla.

The anterior tentorial pits occupy positions nearer the median vertical line of the head than do the antennae. These pits are shown only in Grandi's figures. At one time I thought that the position of the anterior tentorial pits, whether they were medial to, or lateral to the antennae, would prove a valuable character, but in all except the species of *Polistes* these pits are medial to the antennae or directly below them. In the species of *Polistes* they are immediately below or slightly lateral to the antennae. This character may prove valuable when material of the other subfamilies is examined.

The mandibles, as the figures show, are all of the same type, being stout, somewhat angular in cross section, and usually with three apical teeth of about equal size.

There are sclerotised patches of cuticle upon the palate in which conical sensillae, as previously described, occur (fig. 17). Occasionally (Odynerus nugdunensis Saussure) the cuticle seems to be unsclerotised, though the sensillae are present.

The spiracles illustrated by Grandi for Eumenes unquiculata Villers (see figs. 5 and 6) appear to be typical of the subfamily. In E. unquiculata a comparatively small spiracular opening gives access to an almost spherical atrium, which communicates with the trachea by a smallish opening, guarded by a ring of projecting processes, while on the cuticle around the peritreme is a pattern of semi-complete concentric circles.

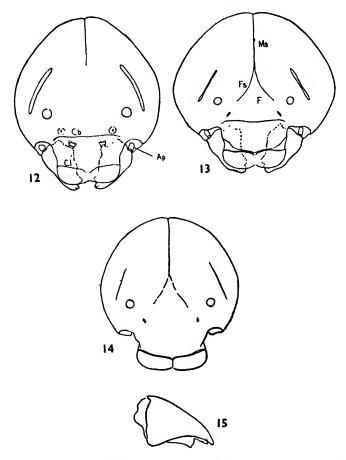
Upon the mentum there is frequently a transverse ridge in association with the opening of the salivary gland, and in some species this ridge is shown as vertically striate: Eumenes unguiculata Villers (fig. 7), Ancistrocerus oviventris (Wesmael) and Odynerus spinipes (L.).

Sometimes the ventral margin of the clypeus tends to overhang the base of the labrum, especially medially: E. unguiculata, E. arbustorum Panzer, Odynerus nugdunensis Saussure (fig. 18).

The labrum is divided by a median longitudinal groove into two lateral lobes, which are considerably swollen. This character is not confined to the Eumeninae, but appears to be very marked in this subfamily. There is a further point about the labrum which seems to be rather characteristic of this subfamily; the posterior margin is usually strongly biarcuate, the bottom of the emargination often nearly meeting the corresponding emargination in the anterior border of the labrum (see fig. 18). There is an area of membrane between the posterior margin of the labrum and the anterior border of the clypeus, so that one should beware of supposing that the anterior border of the clypeus is of the same shape as the posterior margin of the labrum; some of the figures examined convey this impression. Frequently the palate also is bounded posteriorly by a similar biarcuate margin (fig. 17).

The figures and descriptions of Eumenes unguiculata, E. arbustorum, E. pomiformis Fabricius, and Odynerus nugdunensis by Soika, and those of Eumenes pomiformis, by Grandi and Odynerus laevipes Shuckard, by Micheli, were not

examined until some months after the subfamily characters had been decided upon from examination of the figures and descriptions of the other species. Thus it is satisfactory to be able to record that these further species served only to confirm the characters already deduced. Claude-Joseph (1930) gave figures of the heads of the larvae of six species of *Odynerus* from Chile. The figures are small and without much detail, but are fairly clearly of the Eumenine type, as



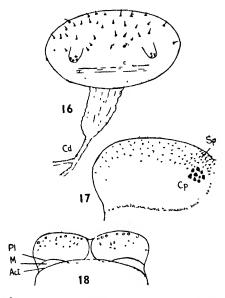
Figs. 12-15.—12, Odynerus parietum. Head capsule and mandibles. Ap, apodemes of mandibles: Cb, upper margin of clypeus: Cl, lower margin of clypeus; 13, O. poecilus. Head capsule and mandibles. F, frons: Fs, frontal suture: Ms, median suture; 14-15. Alastor atropos. 14, Head capsule; 15, Mandible; seen ventrally. Figs. 12-15 adapted from Grandi.

they all show the prominent clypeus and labrum; the former descending below the bases of the mandibles. The biarcuate posterior margin of the labrum is to be seen in all the figures, and the mandibles are apparently of the normal type for the subfamily, being stout and often bluntly tridentate; the apical third of each, heavily sclerotised and dark in colour.

He figured the following six species: Odynerus labiatus Haliday, O. humeralis Haliday, O. vespiformis Haliday, O. scabriusculus Spinola, O. subpetiolatus Saussure, O. molinae Saussure.

The following is a list of the other species of which descriptions have been examined.

exammed.							
Species.	Described by						
Eumenes unguiculata (Villers).	Grandi (1934). Giordano Soika (1933)						
E. arbustorum (Panzer).	Giordano Soika (1933).						
E. pomiformis (Fabricius).	Grandi (1930). Giordano Soika (1933)						
Odynerus (Hoplopus) laevipes Shuckard.	Micheli (1934).						
O. (H.) spinipes (L.).	Micheli (1930).						
O. (H.) poecilus Saussure.	Grandi (1937).						
O. (Ancistrocerus) parietum (L.).	Grandi (1937).						
O. (A.) oviventris Wesmael.	Micheli (1930).						
O. (Microdynerus) nugdunensis Saussure.	Giordanò Soika (1934).						
Rhygchium (or Rhynchium) oculatum (Fabricius).	Grandi (1937).						
Alastor atropos Lepeletier.	Grandi (1935).						



Figs. 16-18.—16, Eumenes arbustorum. Mentum; viewed proximally from above. Note no bristle between either of the papillae and the opening of the salivary gland, O. Cd, common duct of salivary glands; 17, E. unguiculata. One side of the palate. Cp, sclerotised patch with sensillae: Sp, spinous processes; 18, Odynerus nugdunensis. Labrum. Acl, anterior margin of clypeus: M, membrane between clypeus and labrum: Pl, biarcuate posterior margin of labrum. Figs. 16-18 adapted from Soika.

VESPINAE.

The available material of this subfamily was very limited, consisting of the larvae of *Vespula vulgaris* (L.), and the dried remnants of three larvae of *Vespa crabro* L., recovered from an old nest. In addition, figures and descrip-

tions of Vespula norwegica norwegica (Fabricius) and Vespula rufa (L.) by Grandi and of Vespula germanica (Fabricius) by Giordano Soika, were examined.

Characters of the subfamily.

The lower margin of the clypeus is ventral to the level of the bases of the mandibles.

The labrum is nowhere as wide as the clypeus where the latter joins the labrum.

The distance between an antenna and the base of the nearest mandible is greater than the distance from the midpoint on the anterior edge of the labrum, to a line drawn between the bases of the mandibles.

The upper margin of the clypeus extends dorsally beyond the level of the anterior tentorial pits.

The walls of the spiracular atria bear branched or unbranched spines directed radially inwards.

There are sclerotised patches upon the palate, bearing conical sensillae; the patches are arranged roughly symmetrically upon either side of the median longitudinal line of the palate.

The mandibles are stout, angular in cross section, and terminate commonly in three obtuse teeth.

There is one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla.

The anterior tentorial pits are medial to the antennae.

Grandi shows a transverse ridge upon the labium of Vespula rufa (L.) similar to the ridge commonly present upon the labium in the EUMENINAE. Sometimes the palate bears spinous processes, Vespula vulgaris (fig. 24) and Vespula germanica, but these are very much smaller and less numerous than in the EUMENINAE and are only visible with the high power of a microscope. The ventral margin of the clypeus tends to overhang the base of the labrum. The posterior margin of the palate is often well defined.

Vespula Thomson.2

One species examined at first hand.

Vespula vulgaris (L.).

In this description, as in those which follow, only points which are not covered by the general description of a Vespid larva, given earlier, will be mentioned; for instance, the number of pairs of spiracles is always ten; this has been stated in the general description and will not be repeated for each species described.

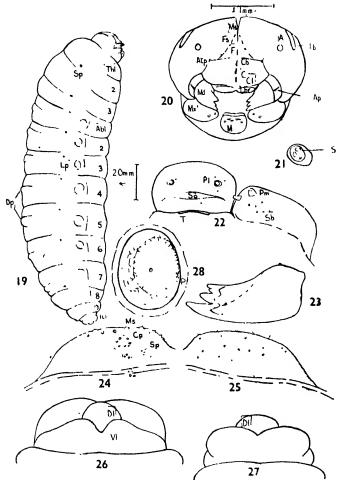
The mature larva is about 12.0-18.0 mm. long.

Head (see fig. 20): The head capsule is firm and hairless, the temporal bands are ferruginous, and the frons and clypeus are pale brown. The antennae and the maxillary and labial papillae appear as brown rings. The mandibles are stout, recalling those described for the EUMENINAE; the terminal third of each shades from pale brown to deep brown upon the teeth, of which there are three, the dorsal one slightly bifid.

The sutures of the head are well marked. The anterior tentorial pits are considerably medial to the antennae. The labrum is rather small and is sharply notched medially on its anterior border; it bears only few bristles and conical sensillae. The palate bears some

² Duncan's (1939) description of the larva of Vespula pennsylvannica (Saussure) was seen too late for inclusion in the present paper.

sclerotised patches in which are sensillae, as described in the EUMENINAE, and on each side of the median line there is a patch of small spinous processes (fig. 24).



Figs. 19-28.— Vespula vulgaris. 19, Side view of larva. Ab, 1-10, abdominal segments: Dp, dorsal protuberance: Sp, spiracle: Lp, lateral protuberance: Th, 1-3, thoracic segments; 20, Head front view. A, antenna: Ap, apodeme of mandible: Atp, anterior tentorial pit: C, clypeus: Cb, upper margin of clypeus: Cl, lower margin of clypeus: F, frons: Fs, frontal suture: Lbr, labrum: M, mentum: Md, mandible: Ms, median suture: Mx, maxilla: Tb, temporal band; 21, Papilla of mentum much magnified. S, sensilla; 22, Mentum and maxilla, viewed from above. Pl, labial (mental) papilla: Pm, maxillary papilla: Sb, sensory bristles: So, opening of salivary gland: T, sclerotised transverse bar, part of internal skeleton of head; 23, Mandible, viewed from in front; 24, Half of palate (ventral surface of labrum). Cp, sclerotised patch with sensillae: Ms, conical sensilla: Sp, spinous processes; 25, Half of labrum; 26, Anal segment, ventral view. Dl, dorsal lip of anus; 21, ventral lip of anus; 27, Anal segment, dorsal view. Dl, dorsal lip of anus; 28, Spiracle. P, peritreme: O, opening of trachea.

The maxillae and labrum are firm, and bristle sensillae are sparse. There is one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla.

Body: the body is hairless and the cuticle colourless, both the usual conditions among Vespid larvae. Dorsal protuberances are developed on abdominal segments I-VIII and lateral ones on abdominal segments II-IX. The ventral lip of the anus is bifid, and the dorsal half of abdominal segment X is rather prominent laterally. The spiracles appear as brownish spots under the binocular microscope; the atrium of each spiracle contains numerous small points on its walls projecting into the lumen of the cavity (fig. 28).

Vespula germanica (Fabricius).

Described and figured by Soika (1934).

Head. This differs from that of V. vulgaris (L.) only in the following respects. The head is described as colourless. The labial papillae bear four sensillae each, as against the three of V. vulgaris. There seem to be more sensory bristles upon the labium and maxillae, and the distribution and numbers of the sensillae upon the palate and labrum is somewhat different; but the positions and numbers of the sensillae upon the head capsule and mouthparts of Vespid larvae, are in general very variable, so that the differences cited above probably have little significance. The mandibles are similar to those of V. vulgaris. The body is not described nor are the spiracles; the processes in the latter might yield a good means of separating the two species.

Vespula norwegica norwegica (Fabricius).

Described and figured by Grandi (1934).

This species differs from the preceding only in the following respects:—

Head (fig. 32): The head capsule is much broader than that of Vespula vulgaris (L.). The lateral margins of the clypeus apparently do not run into the anterior tentorial pits as is normally the case. The labrum bears rather more sensillae and is gently emarginate, instead of sharply notched. Apically the mandibles bear only one tooth, which is ventral, and the rest of the apical margin is serrate.

Body. The dorso-lateral prominences on the last abdominal segment, mentioned in the preceding species, are here very well developed (figs. 33 and 34). The spiracles are conspicuous and bear complex branched spines on the walls of the atria (fig. 35). The two thoracic spiracles are smaller than the first abdominal one.

Vespula rufa (L.).

Figured by Grandi (1935).

Grandi does not describe this larva and only gives two drawings of the head, so that one cannot tell whether the body would have shown any characters of value; one would have liked to know the shape of the processes in the atria of the spiracles, if they exist.

Head (fig. 29): This appears to be the same as in the two preceding species, except in the following respects. The upper margin of the clypeus is not shown; there is a bulge in the outline of the head capsule at the level of the antennae and there are a few spines on the outer faces of the mandibles. These last two-characters might be specific. The shape of the mandibles is very similar to those of Vespula vulgaris (L.). The figures show a strongly developed ridge or spinneret upon the mentum; this also might be a character of specific importance (figs. 30, 31).

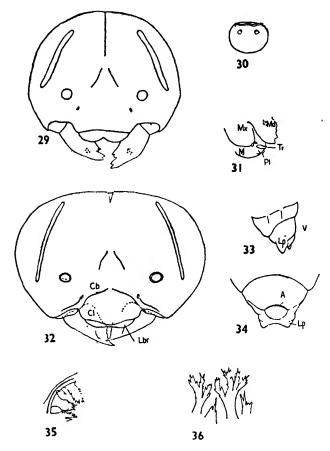
Vespa L.

Vespa crabro L.

The dried remains of three larvae of this species were obtained in the late autumn from an old nest; the heads were intact but the bodies were shrivelled

up and blackened; however, by soaking them in caustic potash, much of the cuticle was recovered, and from this mounts of the spiracles were made.

Head (fig. 37): Very similar to that of Vespula vulgaris (L.) except that it is larger; the anterior tentorial pits are less medial to the antennae and there are more sensillae upon the labrum (fig. 39).



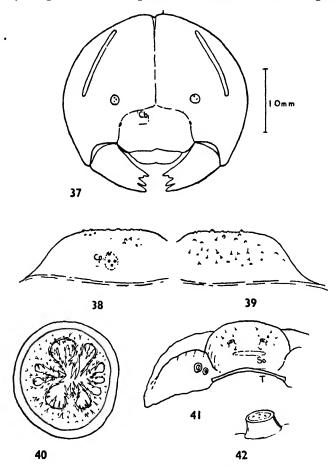
Figs. 29-36.—29-31. Vespula rufa. 29, Head capsule and mandibles; 30, Mentum, viewed from below to show the transverse ridge associated with the opening of the salivary gland; 31, Mentum etc., side view. M, mentum: Md, mandible: Mx, maxilla: Pl, labial papilla: Tr, transverse ridge. 32-35. V. norwegica norwegica. 32, Head capsule and mandibles. Cb, upper margin of clypeus: Cl, lower margin of clypeus: Lbr, labrum; 33, End of abdomen, side view, to show the lateral protuberances, Lp, on abdominal segment X: V, ventral surface; 34, End of abdomen, ventral view. A, anal slit: Lp, lateral protuberance; 35, Part of spiracle to show atrial processes; I'. media (De Geer). 36, Atrial processes of a spiracle. After Semichon. Figs. 30-35 adapted from Grandi.

Spiracles: Relatively larger than those of Vespula vulgaris, with complex processes on the atrial walls, as shown in fig. 40.

SUMMARY.

There appears to be no difficulty in finding subfamily characters for the larvae of the Vespinae, but with the incomplete examination of a few species

it is more difficult to pick upon likely specific characters. Possibly the shape of the mandibles and the spiracular processes would go a long way to separating the species. For instance, one sees from the figures that Vespula norwegica norwegica can be clearly separated from the other four species by the shape of the teeth on the mandibles; Vespula rufa (L.) can be distinguished from the other three by the presence of the spines on the mandibles, and Vespula vulgaris



Figs. 37-42.—Vespa crabro. 37, Head capsule and mandibles. Cb, upper margin of clypeus; 38, Palate. Cp, sclerotised patch with sensillae; 39, Labrum; 40, Spiracle; 41, Mentum and maxillae from above. So, opening of salivary gland: T, transverse bar as in Vespula vulgaris; 42, Labial papilla.

(L.) and Vespa crabro L. may be separated by the appearance of the spiracular processes. Consideration of Vespula germanica (Fabricius) must be postponed until a fuller description is available. Two points of interest arise out of this: the mandibles of Vespula vulgaris, Vespula germanica and Vespa crabro are identical, within the range of variation exhibited, and the heads as a whole are very similar; in fact from examination of the heads of the larvae one would say that Vespula vulgaris and Vespula germanica appear to be much closer to Vespa crabro in a different genus than they are to Vespula norwegica norwegica or even

Vespula rufa in the same genus. The other point concerns the spiracular processes which Semichon (1923) claims suffice to separate the species. I am somewhat sceptical of this. Nevertheless, if taken in conjunction with other characters, these processes may be very useful. Comparison of the processes in Vespa crabro, Vespula norwegica norwegica and Vespula media (De Geer), the latter figured by Semichon, shows that they are very similar, and one can well imagine that if figures were available for other species, conditions intermediate between these three might be found, and the differences would then be so small that it would be impossible to distinguish the species by means of this character alone. However, the presence of these processes seems to form a subfamily character.

POLISTINAE.

Of this subfamily there was material available of three South American species, and in addition figures and descriptions of two European species, *Polistes foederatus* Kohl and *P. gallicus* (L.), were examined. Thus the conclusions arrived at, though based on only five species, are enhanced in value by the fact that the species are drawn from both the New World and the Old World.

Characters of the subfamily.

The lower border of the clypeus is not ventral to the level of the bases of the mandibles; the mid-point of the lower border being dorsal to the bases of the mandibles.

There is more than one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla.

The maxillary lobes are prominent and nearly spherical.

The upper border of the clypeus is dorsal to the level of the anterior tentorial pits.

The anterior tentorial pits are lateral to or directly ventral to the antennae.

The last abdominal segment bears a median process dorsally.

In addition there are the following characters:—

The mandibles are slender, approximately circular in cross section, and end in two fine pointed teeth, of which the ventral is the larger and more terminal and sometimes (*Polistes carnifex* Fabricius) bears a small subsidiary tooth. The labrum is strongly transverse and is wider than, or as wide as, the distance between the antennae. Forked sensory bristles occur, particularly upon the mentum. They are not indicated in Soika's figures or his description of *P. gallicus* (L.). As Soika (1934) points out, the mentum is considerably longer than that of the VESPINAE, which is often (*Vespula vulgaris* (L.)) somewhat transverse.

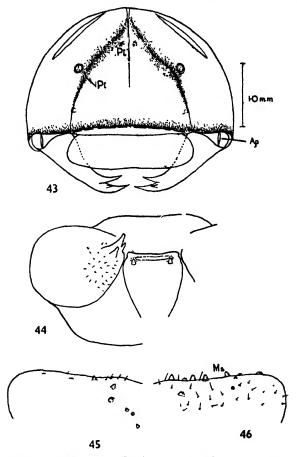
Key to the species of *Polistcs* described.

2(1). Without spines on the palate; the mentum not bicoloured.

- 3(9). With a pronounced knob on the dorsal half of the last abdominal segment.

 With more than three sensillae on each labial papilla.

8(3). Without a pronounced knob on the dorsal half of the last abdominal segment. With three sensillae on each labial papilla P. foederatus Kohl.



Figs. 43-46.—Polistes carnifex. 43, Head capsule and mandibles. Ap, apodeme of mandible: Pt, punctation marking insertion of muscles; 44, Maxilla and labium from below; 45, Palate; 46, Labrum. Ms, conical sensillae.

Polistes Latreille.

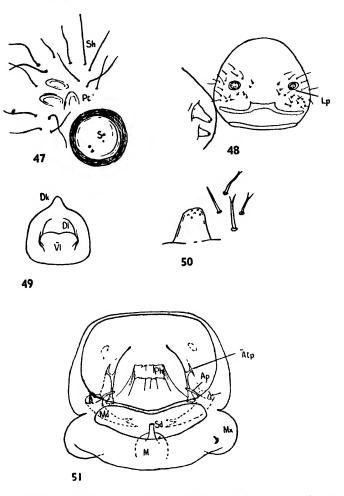
Three species examined at first hand.

Polistes carnifex (Fabricius).

This is a large species, the mature larvae being up to 20·0 mm. or more in length, and more stout in proportion than the larvae of *Vespula vulgaris* (L.). The general appearance is as shown in fig. 52, of *Polistes crinitus* Felton.

Head (see fig. 43): The head capsule is firm, for the most part pale or straw coloured, but with dark brown bands distributed as indicated in the figure by the stippling; these bands coincide with the frontal sutures, the lateral sutures of the clypeus, the anterior edge

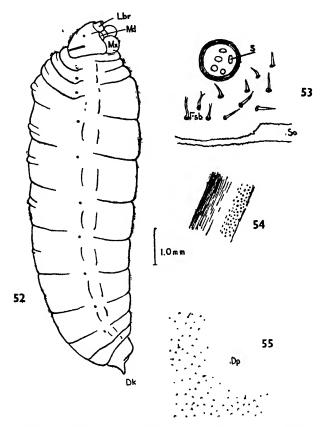
of the clypeus and the lower anterior border of the head capsule. The temporal bands are pale brown. The punctations which mark the insertions of muscles are particularly obvious. The antennae bear one or two small extra sensillae, in addition to the usual



Figs. 47-51.—Polistes carnifex. 47. Antenna and adjacent part of head capsule, much magnified. Pt, punctation of muscle insertions: S, sensilla of antenna: Sh, sensory hairs; 48, Mentum and part of maxilla from above. Note group of sensory bristles, some forked, behind each labial papilla, Lp; 49, Anal segment viewed end on. Dl, dorsal lip of anus; Dk, median dorsal knot: Vl, ventral lip of anus: 50, Labial papilla and some of the sensory bristles which occur behind it (highly magnified); 51, Head capsule viewed from the rear, to show shape and position of the tentorium and apodemes of the mandibles, these structures being stippled. Ap, apodeme of mandible: Atp, anterior tentorial pit: Ph, pharynx: M, mentum: Md, mandible: Mx, maxilla: Sd, duet of salivary gland.

three (see fig. 47). As fig. 47 shows, the head capsule bears numerous long thin sensory hairs. The anterior tentorial pits are slightly lateral to the antennae. The lower border of the clypeus is at the same level as the bases of the mandibles; the upper border is not visible. The maximum width of the labrum is slightly greater than the maximum width TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 2. (DEC. 1942.)

between the antennae. The mandibles when closed are mostly hidden beneath the labrum, when the head is viewed frontally as in fig. 43. The mandibles are rather slender, and bear two tapering sharp-pointed teeth, the lower and larger one with a small subsidiary tooth. The maxillary lobes are very prominent and approximately spherical. The labial papillae each bear six sensillae, but as usual this number shows some variation, five or seven sensillae being not uncommon. There is a group of about ten sensory bristles behind each



Figs. 52-55.—Polistes crinitus var. multicolor. 52, Side view of larva. Dk, median dorsal knob of abdominal segment X: Lbr, labrum: Md, mandible: Mx, maxilla; 53, Labial papilla, postpapillary sensory bristles, and part of the opening of the salivary gland. Fsb, forked sensory bristles: S, sensilla of antenna: So, opening of salivary gland; 54, Portion of temporal band, highly magnified. The right-hand side, showing punctations, is the outer border; 55, Part of the cuticle of the body, highly magnified, showing denticles and sensory bristles, but the portion of the dorsal protuberance, Dp, free of either.

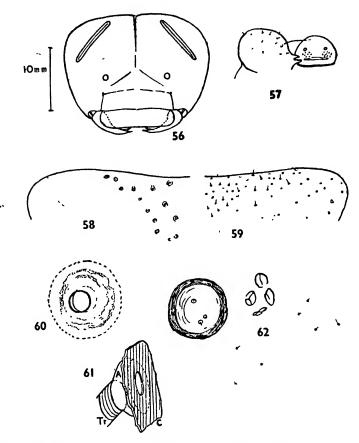
labial papilla and some of these are forked (see figs. 48 and 50). The tentorium or endoskeleton of the head is shown in fig. 51; so far as I can make out, it is the same as this in all Vespid larvae, but is hardly noticeable except in the species with well-sclerotised heads.

Body: The ventral surface of the thorax and first abdominal segment bear fine, rather long, hairs, visible with a binocular microscope. Dorsal and lateral protuberances are developed as usual. Abdominal segment X bears dorsally a prominent median knob, as shown in fig. 49, ventrally this segment is rather swollen; the ventral lip of the anus is slightly bifid.

Polistes crinitus Felton var. multicolor (Olivier).

Those larvae that were probably full grown were about 12.0 mm. long.

Head (fig. 56): The head capsule is dark brown with a V-shaped pale area coinciding with the frontal sutures; that is to say, the bottom of the V points towards the top of the head, and is roughly where the frontal sutures arise from the median suture, and the ends of the arms are at the level of the antennae.



Figs. 56-62.—Polistes crinitus var. multicolor. 56, Head capsule and mandibles; 57, Mentum and maxilla from above; 58, Palate; 59, Labrum; 60, Spiracle, surface view. Broken lines indicate structures beneath the cuticle; 61, Spiracle, side view, diagrammatic. A, atrium: C, cuticle: Tr, trachea; 62, Antenna and adjacent part of cuticle highly magnified. Compare fig. 47.

This character is liable to some variation; the larvae from the island of Dominica, from two nests, were as described, but those from the island of St. Kitts, also from two nests, tended to have the head rather paler in colour, the V-shaped area sometimes less clearly defined, and often accompanied by an additional pale area upon the clypeus.

The morphology of the head is similar to that of the preceding species, except that there are usually no extra sensillae in the antennae; the sensory bristles on the head capsule are small, short and sparse; there are more sensillae on the labrum, and the conical sensillae

are smaller. Normally there are five sensillae upon each of the labial papillae (fig. 53), and a group of about 10 sensory bristles behind each papilla, some of them being forked. The anterior tentorial pits are ventral to the antennae, but more or less lateral to the midpoints of them. It can be seen that the upper margin of the clypeus rises dorsally to the level of the anterior tentorial pits. There is no small tooth upon the larger of the two mandibular teeth, and these do not diverge from one another quite so widely. The mouthparts are suffused smoky brown, whereas they are colourless in *P. carnifex*.

Body: Identical with that of the preceding species, except that it is much smaller, and the ventral half of the first thoracic segment is of similar appearance to the maxillae and labrum, being suffused smoky brown, more sclerotised than the rest of the body, and appearing rugosely punctured. The hairs upon the ventral surface of the thorax and abdominal segment I are less easy to see. No differences other than those described for the head appear to exist between the larvae from St. Kitts and those from Dominica. The spiracles are as shown in figs. 60, 61; a small ostium opens into a hemispherical atrium, the walls of which bear slightly crenate ridges; the trachea opens out of the bottom of the atrium by a hole of greater diameter than the ostium. Examination with high power of the piece of cuticle mounted with the spiracles shows that while the greater part of the cuticle is covered with evenly spaced minute denticles, and occasional sensory bristles, the cuticle of the dorsal protuberances is bare of either, see fig. 62.

Polistes canadensis (L.) var. cinctus Lepeletier.

Length about 15 mm.

Head: Identical with that of P. crinitus var. multicolor except for a difference in the colour markings.

Of 21 larvae from one nest, 11 had the head capsule dark brown all over, and 10 had an approximately circular pale area situated on the upper part of the clypeus and the lower part of the frons. Sixteen of the larvae from another nest had the head capsule dark brown all over, 8 had the pale area as described above, and 5 had ill-defined pale areas on the frontal sutures as well as on the clypeus and frons, but those on the frontal sutures could not be said to form a V. Three of the larvae from a third nest had the pale area on the clypeus and frons, and 2 had pale areas in the region of the frontal sutures as well.

Evidently Vespid larvae of the same species can vary from nest to nest, though it is uncertain how far, in this instance, the variation is due to differences of age in the larvae. It seems that these differences in the colour markings are probably not a satisfactory means of separating these two species; but the differences might be trustworthy and more sharply defined, if none but adult larvae just prior to the prepupal phase were compared.

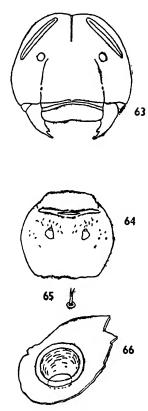
Body: Identical with that of the preceding species, except in size and the fact that the hairs on the ventral surface of the thorax and first abdominal segment are less conspicuous, being really difficult to see under the binocular microscope in this species.

Polistes foederatus Kohl.

Described and figured by Grandi (1934).

Head (see fig. 63): The head capsule bears numerous conspicuous sensory bristles. The anterior tentorial pits are directly ventral to the antennae. The upper margin of the clypeus is not shown; the lower margin is at the same level as the bases of the mandibles. The labrum is shown as being about as wide as the distance between the antennae. The mandibles bear only two teeth. There is a group of about 10 sensory bristles behind each labial papilla, and some of these are forked; each labial papilla bears 3 sensillae.

Body: Segment X of the abdomen is large, as in the species I have examined, but there is no prominent median dorsal knob, though Grandi says that it is produced into a median backwardly directed lobe; this evidently corresponds to the prominent knob. The ventral lip of the anus is bifid.



Figs. 63-66.—Polistes foederatus. 63, Head capsule and mandibles; 64, Mentum, from below; 65, A forked sensory bristle; 66, Spiracle. Figs. 63-66 adapted from Grandi.

Grandi interprets the spiracles as shown in fig. 66, but I am inclined to doubt if this is correct; at first I thought the spiracles of *P. crinitus* were of this shape and it was only after noting most carefully at what level, under the high power, each feature was in focus, that the interpretation shown in figs. 60, 61, was arrived at.

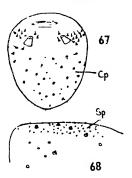
Polistes gallicus (L.).

Described and figured by Soika (1934).

Head: This is dusky coloured except for the antennae, median suture, 2 lines on the occiput (presumably the temporal bands), bases of the mandibles and the adjacent portions of the head (the pleurostomae), the maxillae and the proximal portion of the mentum. The head bears numerous long hairs. The mandibles are of normal shape; bidentate; the smaller tooth slightly mobile. The palate bears on its anterior margin numerous small spinous processes. The mentum has the upper one-third colourless and the remainder dusky coloured, the line of demarcation between the two areas being fairly sharp. These

last two characters appear to be the most distinctive of this species, figs. 67 and 68. No forked sensory bristles are described. The body is not described.

Peltrera (1935) has investigated the variability of some of the buccal structures of the head in the larvae of *P. gallicus*. He examined eight larvae from the same nest; seven of these were adult, having been taken from closed cells, and one had not reached the adult stage. Peltrera found a wide variation in the number and positions of the various sensillae on the labrum and labium, with frequently a considerable bilateral asymmetry in numbers and position of the sensillae in one individual. Sometimes the sensillae are arranged in a roughly symmetrical manner, but never strictly so. The internal papilla of the maxilla, or terminal process of the maxilla as Peltrera calls it, since he agrees with Grandi in calling the external one the maxillary palp, is usually bilobed, but exhibits considerable variation in the number of secondary lobes each of the main lobes bears; there is usually bilateral asymmetry. My own conclusions



Fros. 67-68.—Polistes gallicus. 67, Mentum, from below. Coloured portion, Cp, indicated by stippling; 68, Palate to show spinous processes, Sp. Figs. 67-68 adapted from Soika.

agree in general with these results and consequently I have made very little use of characters connected with these sensory structures of the mouth-parts. Peltrera found, however, that the shape of the maxillary palp and the labial palp is constant in each case and that each bears terminally three sensillae. Although the mandibles are normally bidentate in *P. gallicus*, Peltrera illustrated one mandible with a small third tooth; the other mandible of the pair was normal. Peltrera confirmed Soika's observation that the labium is bicoloured. It is important to note that the young larva examined by Peltrera differed considerably in the number and arrangement of the sensillae upon the labrum and labium, and in the shape of the terminal process of the maxilla, from the condition of these structures prevailing in the adult larvae.

CONCLUSIONS.

The larvae of the Polistinae seem to form an even more compact and easily recognised subfamily than those of the Vespinae; the shape of the head capsule appears to be much more constant and the mandibles show a smaller range of variation. The shape of the mandibles and the rectangular appearance of the labrum seem to be characteristic of the subfamily. This smaller range of variability would probably make it more difficult to separate the larvae of the species of *Polistes* than to separate those of the Vespinae. The instance of

P. crinitus and P. canadensis appears to support this view, for though hardly distinguishable as larvae, the adults are apparently quite distinct, though they do belong to the same species group.

POLYBITNAE.

The greater part of the material examined belonged to this subfamily, and, as the list at the beginning shows, there were specimens of twenty species divided among six genera. Of these six genera, only two appear to be closely related, so that the subfamily characters given below possess a considerable degree of certainty.

Subfamily characters.

The median point upon the lower margin of the clypeus is dorsal to a line drawn between the points of insertion of the mandibles into the head capsule.

There is only one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla.

The width of the labrum is usually less than, but never greater than, the distance between the antonnae.

The anterior tentorial pits are medial to, or occasionally ventral to, the antennae.

The upper margin of the clypeus is dorsal to the anterior tentorial pits.

The following characters are less definite or less constant:—

The mandibles are approximately circular in cross section and soft, except sometimes towards the tips; there are not more than two teeth, and of these usually only the terminal one is large and this is most often slender, tapering and curved. Forked sensory bristles are often present upon the mouth-parts and occasionally upon the labrum. Many of the genera contain mostly small species, with soft, colourless, unsclerotised heads; in such species the median suture, the lateral margins of the clypeus from the anterior edge of the head capsule as far as the anterior tentorial pits, and the points of insertion of muscles, are marked by comparatively wide depressions, circular or groove-like in shape.

Key to the genera Polybia, Protopolybia, Necturinia, Stelopolybia, Metapolybia, and Mischocyttarus.

- 1(2). With one or more large symmetrically placed lobes upon the ventral surface of the first abdominal segment. Diameter of the first spiracle at least twice as great as that of the others Mischocyttarus Saussure.
- 2(1). Without lobes upon the ventral surface of the first abdominal segment.

 First spiracle not much larger than the rest.

3(6). Mandibles with a secondary tooth upon the upper margin.

- 4(5). Mentum only about half the width of the labrum. Head capsule at least partially brown. Forked bristles occur on the head Mctapolybia Ducke.
- 5(4). Mentum considerably more than half the width of the labrum. Head colourless. No forked sensory bristles occur upon the head Stelopolybia Ducke.
- 6(3). If the mandibles have a secondary tooth it is upon the lower margin.
- 7(8). Maximum width between the bases of the mandibles equal to the maximum width between the bases of the maxillary lobes. No forked bristles occur.
- 8(7). Maximum width between the bases of the mandibles less than that between the bases of the maxillary lobes. Forked bristles occur *Polybia* Lepeletier and *Protopolybia* Ducke.

Polybia Lepeletier.

Four species examined at first hand.

Characters of the genus.

The mandibles have one main terminal tooth and a small secondary, sharp or blunt or sometimes much reduced, upon the ventral surface of the mandible.

The maximum distance between the bases of the mandibles is less than the maximum distance between the bases of the maxillary lobes (cf. Nectarinia).

The mentum is more than half as wide as the labrum.

The head capsule is colourless or pale straw coloured, and commonly has wide depressions marking the insertions of muscles, the position of the median suture, etc.

Forked sensory bristles occur upon the head, particularly upon the mouth-parts.

Key to the species of Polybia examined.

- 2(1). Width of the labrum clearly less than the distance between the antennae. Without conspicuous dorso-lateral prominences on abdominal segment X.
- 3(6). With a median dorsal prominence on abdominal segment X.
- 4(5). Secondary tooth of the mandibles only a rounded hump. With inconspicuous dorso-lateral prominences on abdominal segment X

bistriata (Fabricius).

- 5(4). Secondary tooth of the mandibles comparatively sharp. Without dorso-lateral prominences on abdominal segment X rejecta (Fabricius).
- 6(3). Without a median dorsal prominence on abdominal segment X

catillifex Mocbius.

Polybia micans Ducke.

About 15.0 mm. long.

Head (see fig. 69): The head capsule is fairly firm and is colourless, except for the temporal bands and antennae, which are light brown. There are a number of broad shallow depressions in the head capsule, which mark the insertion of muscles; they correspond to the punctations in those species with more sclerotised heads. There is a projecting lobe of the head capsule exterior to, and slightly below, the base of each mandible (see figs. 69 and 70); this is commonly present in Vespid larvae, but is rather prominent in this species; this portion of the head capsule seems to be what Grandi calls the pleurostoma.

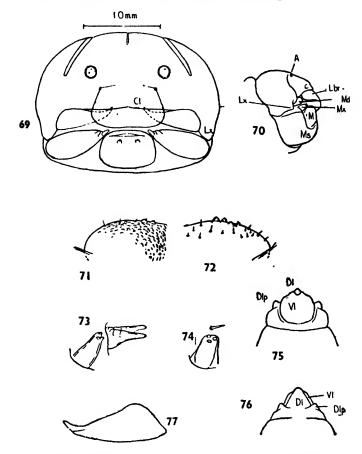
The anterior tentorial pits are just medial to the antennae. There are a few bristles on the head capsule. The surface of the labrum anteriorly is slightly rugose, the palate very rugose. The labrum bears about 6 conical sensillae on each side of the median line; its width is about equal to the distance between the antennae. The mentum is more than half as wide as the labrum. The mandibles are as figured. There are 3 sensillae upon each labial papilla and one sensory bristle behind each papilla; some of the sensory bristles upon the mouth-parts are forked.

Body: This is normal, except for the shape of abdominal segment X, which is distinctive (see figs. 75 and 76); the dorsal and ventral lips of the anus are comparatively long, the ventral lip is bifid as usual, and there are two dorso-lateral prominences directed backwards; this last feature is the most distinctive one.

Polybia rejecta (Fabricius).

Full-grown larva about 10.0 mm. long.

Head (fig. 78): Identical with that of the preceding species, except in the following details. It is smaller and sometimes there is some pale brown on the capsule. The lobes of the head capsule adjacent to the mandibles are less developed. There are more round



Figs. 69-77.—Polybia micans. 69, Head. Cl, lower border of clypeus: Lx, lobe of head capsule exterior to base of mandible; part of the pleurostomal region; 70, Side view of head. A, antenna: C, clypeus: Lbr, labrum: Lx, pleurostomal lobe, see fig. 69. M, mentum: Md, mandible: Mx, maxilla: Ms, submentum; 71, Palate; showing rugosity; 72, Labrum; 73, Maxillary papillae; 74, Labial papilla and postpapillary sensory bristle; 75, Anal segment, ventral view. Dl, dorsal lip of anus: Dlp, dorsolateral protuberance: Vl, ventral lip of anus; 76, Anal segment, dorsal view. Letters as in fig. 75; 77, Mandible; front view.

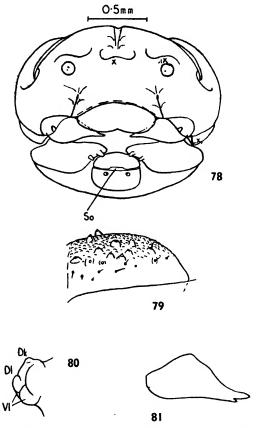
sensillae upon the labrum, the anterior part of which is strongly rugose; its width is less than the minimum distance between the antennae. The mandibles, see fig. 81, are slightly different.

Body: The same as in the preceding species, except for abdominal segment X; the dorsal and ventral lips of the anus are of normal length, the latter bifid, and there are no dorso-lateral prominences. As fig. 80 shows, there is a low prominence in the median line on that part of abdominal segment X above the dorsal lip of the anus.

Polybia catillifex Moebius.

Length about 8.0-9.0 mm.

Head (fig. 82): The same as that of P. rejecta. The only difference that seems worth noting is in the shape of the opening of the salivary gland; that of P. rejecta extends from side to side of the mentum, the edges of the slit not converging towards one another near the side of the mentum, but remaining parallel to one another. In P. catillifex this opening does not extend quite to the sides of the mentum and the edges converge and meet.



Figs. 78-81.—Polybia rejecta. 78, Head. So, opening of salivary gland: X, line indicating the lower margin of a depression: Lx, pleurostomal lobe; 79, Labrum showing rugose appearance; 80, Anal segment viewed laterally. Dl, dorsal lip of anus: Dk, median dorsal prominence: Vl, ventral lip of anus; 81, Mandible; front view.

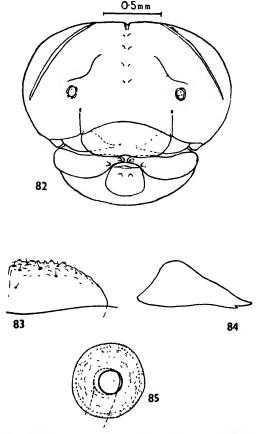
Body: Similar to that of the preceding species, except that there is no median dorsal prominence on abdominal segment X. The spiracles are as shown on fig. 85, the structure being the same as that described in *Polistes crinitus* Felton.

Polybia bistriata (Fabricius).

Length about 6.0 mm.

Head (fig. 86): Identical with that of P. catillifex, except that the single sensory bristle behind each labial papilla is usually forked, while it is usually unforked in P. catillifex, and in addition the secondary tooth on the mandible is replaced by a blunt hump.

Body: Similar to that of P. rejecta, there being a median dorsal prominence on abdominal segment X; there are also slight dorso-lateral prominences in the same position as those of P. micans.



Figs. 82-85.—Polybia catillifer. 82, Head; 83, Labrum; 84, Mandible, front view; 85, Spiracle; surface view. Compare figs. 60 and 61.

Conclusions.

From these descriptions it is evident that the species of *Polybia* are generally very similar and difficult to distinguish, while such differences as can be discovered are seldom clear-cut or easy to describe or use. One can make a key such as that given to the 4 species described, but it might be very difficult to make a key to a large number of species.

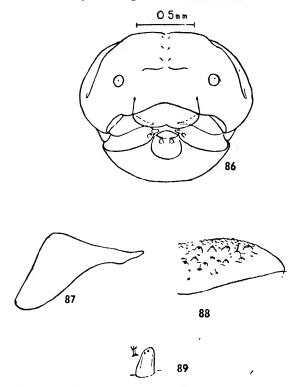
Protopolybia Ducke.

Two species examined at first hand.

Generic characters.

The characters of the genus are the same as those given for *Polybia*, but the secondary tooth is not always present upon the mandibles and the head capsule is not always colourless.

The two species may be distinguished as follows:—



Figs. 86-89.—Polybia bistriata. 86, Head; 87, Mandible; front view; 88, Labrum; 89, Labial papilla and trifid postpapillary sensory bristle.

Protopolybia minutissima (Spinola).

Length about 6.0 mm.

Head (fig. 90): The head capsule is suffused light smoky brown with the median suture, antennae and temporal bands colourless; it bears numerous short sensory bristles visible under the binocular. There are depressions in the head capsule as described for the preceding genus. The anterior tentorial pits are medial to the antennae.

The lobe of the head capsule exterior to the base of each mandible is hardly developed. The anterior part of the labral surface is rugose and the sensory bristles are large; the width of the labrum is less than the minimum distance between the antennae. The mandibles have only a single terminal tooth. The mentum is more than half the width of the labrum. There is one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla and some of the bristles upon the mouth-parts are forked.

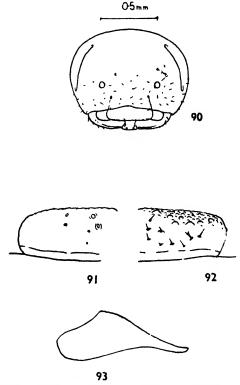
Body: The only part of this which needs mention is the terminal segment; the ventral lip of the anus is bifid, and there are low rounded lateral humps.

Protopolybia sedula (Saussure).

Length about 6.0 mm. Though the same length as the preceding species, it is not so slender.

Head (fig. 94): Differs from that of *P. minutissima* in the following respects. It is colourless and shows a slight punctation; there are only a few hairs on it. The lobes of the head capsule exterior to the bases of the mandibles are normally developed. The sensory bristles on the labrum are relatively smaller and the mandibles bear a secondary tooth upon the lower surface as in *Polybia*.

Body: As in the preceding species.



Figs. 90-93.—Protopolybia minutissima. 90, Head; 91, Palate; 92, Labrum; 93, Mandible; front view.

CONCLUSIONS.

By examination of the species described above, I have been unable to find any certain means of separating this genus from *Polybia*. It seems that the lobes of the head capsule exterior to the base of each mandible are rather more developed in the species of *Polybia* than is normal. In *Polybia* the anterior margin of the labrum is excised (this only amounts to a slight emargination in *P. micans* and *P. catillifex*), while it is truncate in the two species of *Protopolybia*. The larvae of many more species of both genera will have to be examined in order to decide whether or not these two genera can be distinguished from one another in the larval state.

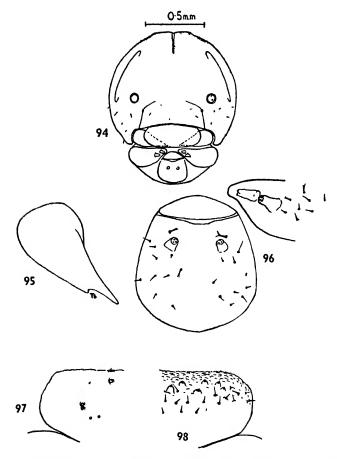
Nectarinia Shuckard.

One species examined at first hand.

Nectarinia scutellaris (Fabricius).

Length about 7.0 mm.

Head (fig. 99): The head capsule is softer than in Polybia and Protopolybia; it is colourless, with numerous bristles much as in Protopolybia minutissima. The anterior tentorial pits are medial to the antennae. The anterior portion of the surface of the labrum

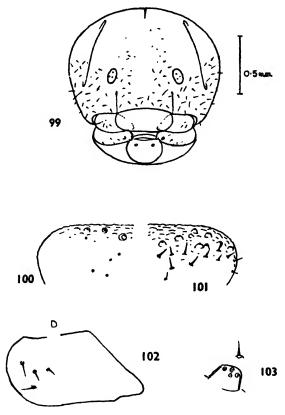


Figs. 94-98.—Protopolybia sedula. 94, Head; 95, Mandible; half front view, the secondary tooth, Ts, is upon the lower edge; 96, Mentum and maxilla from below; 97, Palate; 98, Labrum.

is rugose. The mandibles are as shown in fig. 102. The greatest width between the bases of the mandibles is the same as the greatest width between the bases of the maxillary lobes, so that the bases of the mandibles more or less coincide with those of the maxillary lobes; this is not so in the two preceding genera, the mandibles being closer together than the maxillary lobes. There are some bristles on the outer face of each mandible. The mentum is more than half the width of the labrum, the width of which is about equal to the distance between the antennae. There is one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla, and each papilla bears 3 or 4 sensillae. No forked bristles could be seen.

Body: Normal. The ventral lip of the anus is bifid, there is no median dorsal knob

and no dorso-lateral protuberances on abdominal segment X. The spiracles are similar to those of *Polistes crinitus*.



Figs. 99-103.—Nectarinia scutellaris. 99, Head; 100, Palate; 101, Labrum; 102, Mandible; front view. D, base of mandible; 103, Labial papilla and postpapillary sensory bristle.

Nectarinia lecheguana (Latreille).

There is a brief description of the larva of this species and a drawing of the head, by du Buysson (1905). It is difficult to make out anything from the drawing, but du Buysson describes the mandibles as ending in a single fine point, which is rather surprising, considering their shape in N. scutellaris. Owing to the apparent disagreement between the characters of N. lecheguana as figured and described by du Buysson, and those of N. scutellaris as given here, I have not stated any possible generic characters for the genus Nectarinia.

Stelopolybia Ducke.

One species examined at first hand.

Generic characters.

The following seem to be the most likely generic characters:—

The sides of the labrum are divergent from one another where they join the clypeus.

The mentum is at least three-quarters as wide as the labrum, whereas it is seldom more than two-thirds as wide in the other genera of the POLYBINAE examined.

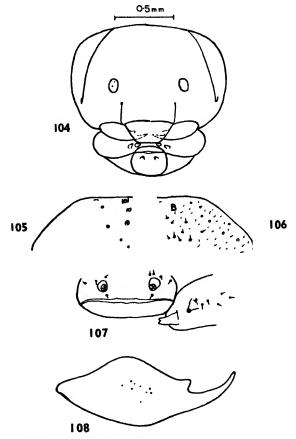
The secondary tooth of each mandible is upon the dorsal margin.

The non-rugose surface of the labrum and the presence upon it of small spines in addition to the usual articulated sensory bristles, coupled with the absence of forked sensory bristles, might prove to be useful characters.

Stelopolybia infernalis (Saussure).

Length about 8.0-9.0 mm.

Head (fig. 104): The head capsule is soft and entirely colourless. The anterior tentorial pits are medial to the antennae. The sides of the labrum diverge from one another, even



Figs. 104-108.—Stelopolybia infernalis. 104, Head; 105, Palate; 106, Labrum. B, non-articulate bristles; 107, Mentum and maxilla from above; 108, Mandible; front view. The secondary tooth is upon the upper border.

at the point where they join the clypeus, instead of being convergent as in the preceding genera. The upper surface of the labrum is not rugose, and bears, in addition to the usual sensory bristles, a number of evenly spaced, very small bristles which are cuticular processes, as opposed to cuticular appendages, such as the sensory bristles. Conical sensillae are few or absent, though present upon the palate. The mandibles are as figured, with a

secondary tooth upon the upper margin and a long curved main tooth, and there are some minute sensillae upon the outer surface of each mandible. The mentum is considerably more than half the width of the labrum, which is less wide than the distance between the antennae. There is one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla, and the labial papillae bear 4–5 sensillae. No forked bristles could be discovered. The position of the mandibles in relation to the maxillary lobes is the same as in *Polybia* and *Protopolybia*, as opposed to the condition in *Nectarinia scutellaris*.

Body: This is the same as described for the preceding genera of the POLYBINAE; abdominal segment X is simple with no median dorsal knob or dorso-lateral prominences; the ventral lip of the anus is bifid.

Metapolybia Ducke.

One species examined at first hand.

The most likely generic characters are these :-

The secondary tooth of the mandibles is upon the upper margin and the point of each mandible is long and curved.

The mentum is only about half the width of the labrum.

The head capsule is coloured.

Forked bristles occur.

Metapolybia cingulata (Fabricius).

About 8.0 mm. long.

Head (fig. 109): The head capsule is smoky brown, except for areas around the temporal bands, the median suture and the antennae, which are colourless; the lower part of the clypeus and all the labrum are also colourless. The anterior tentorial pits are medial to the antennae. There are a few short, stout, blackish bristles upon the lower part of the genae. The anterior surface of the labrum is rugose, the margins slightly convergent where they join the clypeus; the width of the labrum is slightly less than the distance between the antennae. The mandibles are smoky brown with a long, hooked, sharp-pointed, terminal tooth and a small secondary tooth upon the upper border; also some small sensillae upon the outer surface, see fig. 113. The mentum is only about half the width of the labrum. There is one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla and forked bristles occur upon the mouth-parts. The labial and maxillary papillae are brown.

Body: Normal. Abdominal segment X is without a median dorsal prominence, though there are slight dorso-lateral prominences. The dorsal lip of the anus is rather pointed; the ventral lip is only very slightly bifid.

Mischocyttarus Saussure.

Eleven species examined at first hand.

Characters of the genus.

There is always one or more symmetrically placed lobe upon the ventral surface of the first abdominal segment.

The first thoracic spiracle is at least twice the diameter of any of the succeeding spiracles.

The labrum is large, retractible beneath the clypeus, and more than twice as wide as the mentum. Its width is slightly less than the distance between the antennae.

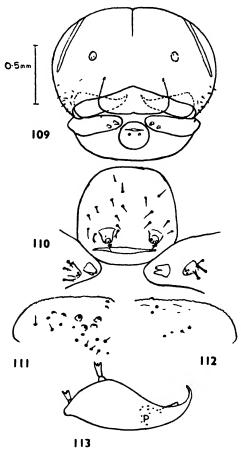
The mandibles are slender and terminate in a single, long, thin, curved and fine-pointed tooth.

The head capsule is sclerotised and always, at least partially, of some shade of brown. There are few bristles upon the mouth-parts and none of them is forked.

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The median point on the lower margin of the clypeus does not come below a line drawn between the points of insertion of the mandibles into the head capsule, though the lateral parts of this clypeal margin do.

The anterior tentorial pits are ventral to the antennae.



Figs. 109-113.—Metapolybia cingulata. 109, Head; 110. Mentum and maxilla from above; 111, Palate; 112, Labrum; 113, Mandible; front view. P, small processes, perhaps sensillae.

Key to the eleven species.

- 1(10). No bristles upon the ventral surface, other than those upon the abdominal lobes.
- Abdominal lobes parallel to one another and broadly rounded at the ends.
 No median dorsal knob on abdominal segment X.
- 3 (6). Head capsule brown with pale patches. Labrum colourless. Bristles of the abdominal lobes greyish to almost black.
- 5 (4). Genae suffused smoky brown, clypeus and rest of the head capsule straw coloured. Bristles of the abdominal lobes coarse, brown to blackish, and not more numerous than usual . synoecus Richards.

superus Richards.

injucundus (Saussure).

	_				
6 (3).	Head capsule dark brown all over. Labrum brown. Bristles of the abdominal lobes pale straw coloured				
	cerberus Ducke var. acheron Richards.				
7 (2).	Abdominal lobes diverging from one another, each tapering to a fine				
point. A median dorsal knob on abdominal segment X.					
8 (9).	Bristles on the abdominal lobes thickened distally and truncate.				
	metoecus Richards.				
9 (8)	Bristles on the abdominal lobes tapering to a point in a normal manner.				
J (O).	lecointei (Ducke).				
10 (1).	Bristles present on the ventral surface, beside those upon the abdominal				
	lobes.				
11(14).	Ventral bristles inconspicuous, arising more or less vertically from the surface of the abdomen.				
12(13).	With 3 abdominal lobes and with a median dorsal knob on abdominal				
().					
10/10)					
13(12).	With two abdominal lobes and no median dorsal knob upon abdominal				
	segment X collarellus Richards.				
14(11).	Ventral bristles coarse and conspicuous, not arising vertically from the				
` '	surface of the abdomen, but directed strongly backwards.				
15(20)	With 2 abdominal lobes.				
10(19).	Abdominal lobes parallel to one another and pointed. Conspicuous colourless areas present on the genae.				
17/19)	Anterior border of the labrum brown. Ventral bristles on segments				
11(10).	TITY All 1 the labrating brown. Ventual prisones on segments				
	IV-IX. Abdominal lobes with blunt points Sp. 10.				
18(17).	Labrum colourless. Ventral bristles on segments II-VIII. Abdominal				
	lobes with fine points surinamensis (Saussure).				
19(16).	Abdominal lobes strongly divergent from one another and with the ends				
(/•					

As this key indicates, these eleven species of *Mischocyttarus* larvae fall quite clearly into several groups. The following is a table of the apparent affinities of the species.

head capsule

20(15). With one median abdominal lobe .

broadly rounded. Genae brown, of the same colour as the rest of the

A. Having no ventral bristles other than those upon the abdominal lobes.

Group I. lecointei, metoecus.

Very close to one another, the only difference being the shape of the bristles on the abdominal lobes.

Group II. cerberus, oecothrix, synoecus.

With blunt, parallel, abdominal lobes, having bristles all over them, as opposed to the sharp, divergent lobes with bristles restricted to the bases of

Group I. Having no knob on abdominal segment X. unlike Group I.

M. oecothrix and M. synoecus are much closer to one another than to M.

cerberus and they form a subgroup. Both have the head capsule parti-coloured, the labrum colourless and the bristles of the abdominal lobes dark coloured; while *M. cerberus* has the head brown all over, the labrum brown and the bristles of the abdominal lobes very pale.

B. Having ventral bristles besides those on the abdominal lobes.

Group III. collarellus, carbonarius.

Both have inconspicuous bristles arising vertically from the surface of the abdomen; otherwise they appear to have no particular affinities to one another.

Group IV. injucundus, superus, surinamensis, Sp. 10.

All have the conspicuous backward sloping ventral bristles. There appears to be nothing else to connect *injucundus* to *superus*, except perhaps the rather conspicuous sensillae upon the palate of both, but in view of the distinctness of *injucundus*, which has only one abdominal lobe, this similarity of the sensillae is probably a coincidence.

Sp. 10 and surinamensis are close to one another and form a subgroup; in both the genae bear characteristically shaped colourless patches, and the abdominal lobes are parallel to one another and pointed.

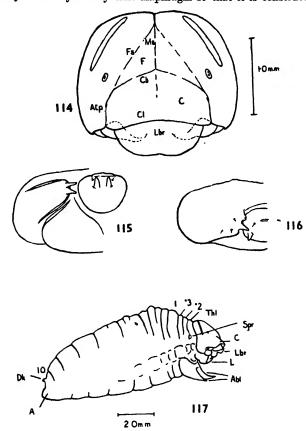
Mischocyttarus lecointei (Ducke).

Length about 9.0 mm.

Head: The head capsule and mouth-parts are brown, except for the temporal bands, the median suture, antennae and the lower border of the clypeus. The head capsule is firm and dark brown, the labrum, maxillae and labium, and the mandibles are smoky brown. The clypeus appears sparsely and irregularly punctured; the sensory bristles of the head capsule are few and minute. The anterior tentorial pits are beneath the antennae. The median point on the lower border of the clypeus is dorsal to a line drawn between the points of insertion of the mandibles into the head capsule, though the corners of the lower border of the clypeus are ventral to this line, unlike the condition in the preceding genera. The labrum can be partially retracted beneath the clypeus, and when retracted appears to arise from beneath the clypeus; this is made possible by an area of membrane which separates the clypeus from the labrum. The labrum is considerably longer from front to back than in the preceding genera of the POLYBINAE; it is nearly as wide as the distance between the antennae; the sensillae upon it are small and inconspicuous and the surface is not rugose. There are a few rather larger sensillae upon the palate. The mandibles have no secondary teeth, each terminates in a long thin curved and finely pointed tooth, which is directed down the throat when the mandibles are closed. The mentum is considerably less than half as wide as the labrum; both maxillary and labial papillae are long in comparison with those of the preceding Polybine genera. There is a single sensory bristle behind each labial papilla and only very few sensory bristles upon the mouth-parts; no forked bristles occur.

Body: The thorax has the lateral protuberances developed, the first thoracic spiracle is very large and obvious, being at least twice the diameter of the other spiracles (see figs. 124–126). The abdomen has the dorsal and lateral protuberances developed. The ventral portion of the first abdominal segment, between the lateral protuberance, is developed into a pair of large lobes (see figs. 117 and 127–134); each of these is circular in cross section and tapers to a comparatively fine point; the lobes are symmetrical and equal in length to the length of the head capsule, measured from the top to the labrum; they are directed forwards and diverge from one another. Each lobe has a few large sensory bristles upon its outer surface, particularly near the base. In future these lobes will be called "the abdominal lobes"; for further information about them see page 326. The corresponding part of abdominal segment II is swollen, but is not produced into lobes. The remainder of the abdomen conforms to the usual Vespid type and is without bristles. The ventral lip of the anus is bifid and there is a small abrupt knob in a median dorsal position on abdominal

segment X. The structure of the spiracles is as shown in figs. 124-126; the large first spiracle is wide open, with the usual crenate ridges on the atrial wall, the bottom of the atrium is partially closed by a diaphragm, pierced by the tracheal opening. The smaller figure is of one of the abdominal spiracles, drawn to the same scale; it has the mouth of the spiracle partially closed by a very thin diaphragm so that it is constructed in the same



Figs. 114-117. 114. Mischocyttarus occothrix. Head. Atp, anterior tentorial pit: C, clypeus: (I, lower margin of clypeus: F, frons: Fs, frontal suture: Lbr, labrum: Ms, median suture: Cb, upper margin of clypeus. 115, M. lecointei. Labium and maxilla from below. 116, M. carbonarius. Part of labium and maxilla from above. 117, M. metoecus. Side view of larva. A, anus: Abl, abdominal lobes of abdominal segment I: C, clypeus: Dk, median dorsal knob of abdominal segment X: L, Labium: Lbr, labrum. Sp. 1, enlarged first spiracle: 1-10, abdominal segments: Th, 1, 2, and 3, thoracic segments.

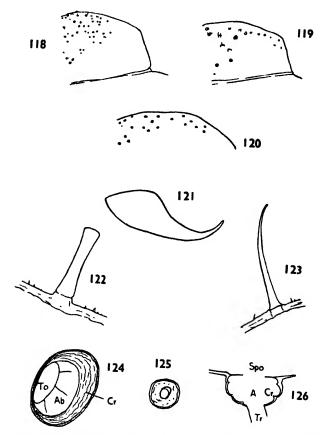
fashion as the spiracles of *Polistes, Nectarinia* and *Polybia*, already described. Fig. 126 is a side view of one of these small spiracles, drawn under higher power.

Mischocyttarus metoccus Richards.

Length about 9.0 mm.

This species is practically identical with M. lecointei (Ducke), but may be distinguished by the appearance of the sensory bristles upon the abdominal

lobes (see figs. 122, 123). Those of *M. lecointei* (Ducke) are of a normal shape, tapering to a point, but those of *M. metoecus* are short, stout, and expanded distally, and almost flat ended. This curious difference is the only one I have discovered between the larvae of these two species, but it is perfectly definite and distinct.



Figs. 118-126.—118-119. Miscnocyttarus carbonarius. 118, Labrum; 119, Palate. 120, M. lecointei (Ducke). Labrum. 121, M. oecothrix. Mandible; viewed from the back. 122, M. metoecus. Sensory bristle from abdominal lobe, highly magnified. Cuticle seen in optical section. 123, M. lecointei. As for fig. 122. 124-126. M. cerberus var. acheron. 124, First thoracic spiracle. Ab, sloping floor of atrium: Cr, crenate ridges on atrial walls: To, tracheal opening; 125, Abdominal spiracle, to the same scale as fig. 124; compare figs. 60, 61 and 85; 126, Abdominal spiracle, side view. Optical section (more highly magnified than in fig. 125). A, atrium: Cr, ridges on atrial walls: Spo, spiracular opening: Tr, trachea.

Mischocyttarus cerberus Ducke var. acheron Richards.

Length about 9.0 mm.

Head: The distribution of brown and pale areas upon the head is similar to that of M. lecointei (Ducke), but the brown is not so dark or dense, being a smoky brown. In structure the head is the same as that of M. lecointei.

Body: The same as that of M. lecointei, except for differences in the abdominal lobes and the absence of any median dorsal knob on abdominal segment X. The abdominal

lobes (see fig. 129) are shorter than those of *M. lecointei*; they are parallel to one another and blunt ended, and the sensory bristles are not confined to the outer basal part of each lobe, but are distributed up the sides of the lobes and on the ends; the bristles are very pale.

Mischocyttarus synoecus Richards.

About 9.0 mm. long.

Head: Morphologically there is no difference from that of M. lccointei, but it is less sclerotised. The genae, particularly the lower parts, are dark smoky brown, the rest of the head capsule, including the clypeus and most of the upper half, is straw coloured, slightly darker on the clypeus than on the top of the capsule. The labrum and labium and maxillae are colourless; the mandibles are pale smoky brown and the papillae of the labium and maxillae light brown. Frequently there is a crescent-shaped dark band behind, and parallel to each temporal band; it can be seen to be composed of minute dots of pigment, but is probably sub-cuticular; as I cannot find it on the stained preparation of the head capsule, possibly it has something to do with the formation of the adult eye.

Body: The abdominal lobes are rather similar to those of M. cerberus, being parallel to one another and blunt ended; they are, however, rather shorter; the distribution of the bristles is similar, but they are dark brown instead of pale, being darkest towards the base of each lobe. The rest of the body is as described for M. cerberus.

Mischocyttarus oecothrix Richards.

About 10.0 mm. long.

Very similar to the preceding species with the following differences. The head is parti-coloured as in the preceding species but the pattern is different; the whole of the lower quarter of the head capsule is dark brown to black, being darker round the bottom of the head capsule. The upper boundary of this dark area runs from the sides of the head capsule, across the head at a level above the antennae, until a point just medial to the antennae is reached, when it dips sharply down to cross the clypeus at the level of the antennae. The crescent-shaped marks are present behind the temporal bands. The abdominal lobes are a little stouter and more blunt ended, and the bristles of the lobes are more numerous and are fine, long and rather pale smoky, compared with those of *M. synoecus*. Segment 10 of the abdomen is somewhat swollen.

Mischocyttarus carbonarius (Saussure).

Length about 14.0-15.0 mm.

Head: the head capsule is dark brown to pitchy, with pale areas at the top and on the frons. The labrum and mouth-parts are varying shades of smoky brown. Structurally the head is the same as that of M. lecointei, except that the sensillae upon the labrum are a little different (see fig. 118). There are obvious sensory bristles present, and the sensillae are of various sizes and are not confined to the anterior border of the labrum; the conditions in M. lecointei are the reverse of these.

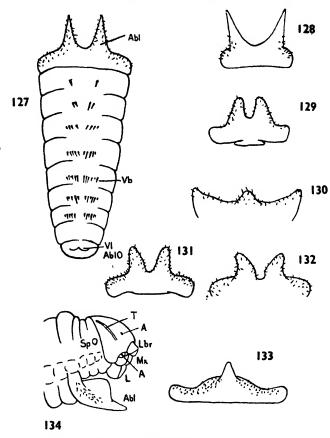
Body: There are three abdominal lobes instead of two (see fig. 130). They bear stout, dark bristles, and in addition, upon the outer face of the two exterior lobes, there is a short, thick, pale, pilosity. Upon the dorsal halves of the third thoracie, and first abdominal segments, are a few inconspicuous brown bristles. They are arranged on each of the two segments, in a median transverse row, interrupted in the mid-dorsal line and terminating on each side at the level of the spiracles. Upon segment IX of the abdomen in the same position, there is a similar single row of bristles. Upon the ventral surfaces of abdominal segments II-VIII inclusive, there are similar bristles; they rise vertically from the cuticle and are arranged on each segment, in two groups, disposed transversely, one on either side

of the mid-ventral line. There is a median dorsal knob on abdominal segment X, and the ventral lip of the anus is bifid.

Mischocyttarus collarellus Richards.

Length about 9.0-12.0 mm.

Head: The head capsule is smoky brown all over, slightly pale behind the temporal bands and with the median suture and antennae pale. The frontal sutures are faint.



Figs. 127-134.—127, Mischocyttarus surinamensis. Ventral view; semi-diagrammatic. Ab. 1 and Ab. 10; abdominal segments I and X: Vb, ventral bristles: Vl, ventral lip of anus. 128, M. lecointei. Abdominal lobes viewed as in fig. 127. 129, M. cerberus var. acheron. The same. 130-132, M. carbonarius. 130, Abdominal lobes viewed as in fig. 127; 131, M. collarellus. The same; 132, M. superus. The same. 133-134. M. injucundus. 133, The same; 134, Side view, to show abdominal lobe, etc. A, antenna: Abl, abdominal lobe: Ap, apodeme of mandible: L, labium: Lbr, labrum: Mx, maxilla: Sp, first spiracle: T, temporal band.

The labrum is mostly colourless, and the maxillary lobes and labium are also only partially coloured. The papillae are brown and the mandibles smoky brown, like the head and those portions of the mouth-parts which are coloured. The structural characters of the head are the same as those of *M. lecointei*.

Body: The thorax, as usual, resembles that of M. lecointei. The abdominal lobes (see

fig. 131) are of medium length, divergent from one another and round ended; there are fine, pale brown bristles, distributed over most of the lobes, except the posterior side of the base, from which the lobes arise, and this is bare in most species. The ventral surfaces of abdominal segments II-IX inclusive bear a few inconspicuous bristles arranged as described in *M. carbonarius*. There are no dorsal bristles and no knob on the dorsal half of abdominal segment X; the ventral lip of the anus is bifid.

Mischocyttarus Sp. 10.3

Length about 9.0 mm.

Head: The head capsule is a smoky brown with a pale area on each gena, behind and below the temporal bands, but not extending to the margin of the head capsule. The antennae, temporal bands, and median suture are pale. The anterior half of the labrum is irregularly smoky brown, only portions of the maxillary lobes and labium are brown, much as in the preceding species. Structurally the head is normal.

Body: The abdominal lobes are long and tapering, as in M. lecointei (Ducke), but do not terminate in such fine points, and are parallel to one another. The bristles and their distribution upon the lobes are similar to the condition described in the preceding species. There are some conspicuous bristles upon the ventral surfaces of abdominal segments IV-IX inclusive; they are arranged much as in M. carbonarius (Saussure), in a single transverse row upon each segment, each row being interrupted in the median ventral line and terminating before the lateral protuberances are reached. Unlike the condition in M. carbonarius, the bristles are thick, coarse, rather abruptly pointed and light fulvous brown, and instead of arising more or less vertically from the cuticle, they slope strongly towards the posterior end of the larva. The exact number upon each segment is variable, but there are 2-4 per segment on segments IV, V and VI, and 8-12 on segments VII, VIII and IX. On each segment there are about the same numbers of bristles on each side of the median line. The 10th abdominal segment is as described in the preceding species, though a little more prominent.

Mischocyttarus surinamensis (Saussure).

Length about 9.0 mm. Very similar to the preceding species.

Head: The coloration of the head is very similar to that of the species just described. The pale areas on the genae are a little more sharply defined and are rather larger, embracing the temporal bands and partially encircling the antennae. The shape is much the same, the outer edge being parallel to the margin of the head capsule, so leaving a border of brown round the edge of the head capsule, from its top round to the point where the lateral margins of the clypeus terminate on the anterior edge. The labrum, unlike that of the preceding species, is entirely colourless, as are the mouth-parts, except for the mandibles; the labrum is rather narrow and prominent.

Body: The abdominal lobes are like those of the preceding species, except that they taper to fine points and the bristles are a little coarser. There are bristles upon the ventral surface of the abdomen, like those of the preceding species, but they are borne on segments 2-8 inclusive instead of 4-9. As before, they are more numerous upon the hinder segments. It is noticeable that upon the forward segments, the bristles tend to point towards the median ventral line. The anal segment resembles that of the preceding species.

Mischocyttarus superus Richards.

Length about 9.0 mm.

Head: The head capsule is a dark smoky brown, the median suture, antennae and temporal bands paler. The labrum and mouth-parts are also brown, and the sensillae upon

³ The single adult obtained from this nest is too immature to describe, but is closely allied to *M. surinamensis*.

the palate are rather conspicuous. Structurally the head is the same as that of M. lecointei.

Body: The abdominal lobes are rather short, strongly divergent and blunt ended (see fig. 132). The bristles upon them are pale coloured and distributed as shown in the figure, this distribution being similar to that in *M. collarellus*. The ventral bristles are the same as in the preceding species, and are present on segments 2–8. The ventral lip of the anus is bifid and there is no median dorsal knob on the anal segment.

Mischocyttarus injucundus (Saussure).

Length about 9.0 mm.

Head: The colouring of the head is similar to that of the preceding species, though the temporal bands and antennae are paler and the labrum is not so dark a brown. There are some conspicuous sensillae upon the palate. Structurally the head resembles that of M. lecointei.

Body: This species is distinguished by having only a single median abdominal lobe (see fig. 133). The bristles upon the lobe are short, fine, and pale brown and do not extend to the end of the lobe, which is pointed. The ventral bristles are of the same kind as in the previous three species; they are considerably deflected towards the median line, and directed backwards as before; they occur on segments II-VIII inclusive and are not much more numerous upon the rear segments than on the anterior ones. The anal segment is normal and has no median dorsal knob.

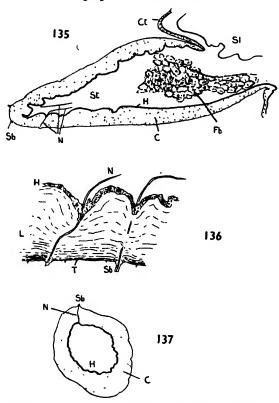
Conclusions.

It is evident from the foregoing descriptions that this genus is an extremely distinct one, having a number of characters which are very constant; for instance, the mandibles are always precisely the same, though they have always shown at least small variations in the other genera. The enlarged first spiracle is always present and the general structural features of the head capsule are extremely constant. Despite these characters, which show great constancy and lack of variability, there are a number of other ones, such as the presence or absence of bristles upon the venter and the shape of the abdominal lobes, which vary considerably and offer ready means of separating the species. characters are all such as can be seen with a binocular microscope, or at the most the low power of the ordinary microscope, without the necessity of making slides; indeed it is somewhat useless to do so, for owing to the great constancy of the structural characters of the head, one could not separate the species by examination of the microscopic features of the head. It is because of this lack of variation in the structure of the head that I have figured the head of only one species, M. oecothrix, fig. 114.

The abdominal lobes (figs. 135-137).

The function of these structures is unknown. At first I thought they might be concerned with secreting substances attractive to the nurse wasps: that they were in fact examples of what W. M. Wheeler calls "exudatoria.". On cutting sections it was found that the cuticle of these lobes is at least twice as thick as that of the adjacent parts of the thorax and abdomen, and frequently as much as ten times as thick, and since there are no pores leading through the cuticle of these lobes, it is highly unlikely that they serve any secretory function. There are no muscle fibres in these lobes, and they contain only fat body towards the base and an apparently structureless tissue in the upper part, through which nerves run to the sensory bristles. It is possible that these lobes act as a support for food, the nurse wasps placing it upon the lobes and the larva using

them as a kind of dining-table; this is known to occur in the larvae of certain bees which have lobes upon the ventral surface. The structure of the sensory bristles upon the lobes forms a slight support for this view, but of course direct observation of the feeding of the larvae in the nests would be necessary to prove it. The bristles, as the figures show, are each supplied with a large nerve, which appears to run up the inside of each bristle. Such sensory bristles, which have the nerves running up the inside of them instead of stopping at the



Figs. 135-137.—Mischocyttarus sp. 135, Median longitudinal section of an abdominalobe. C, cuticle: Ct, cuticle of thorax: Fb, fat body: H, hypodermis: N, nerves leading to sensory bristle: Sb, base of sensory bristle: Sl, salivary gland: St, space occupied by structureless tissue; 136, Section of the cuticle of an abdominal lobe highly magnified. H, hypodermis: L, finely laminated structure of the cuticle: N, nerve supplying sensory bristle: Sb, part of sensory bristle up which nerve appears to run: T, non-sensory spinules, projections of the cuticle; 137, transverse section across an abdominal lobe, in the upper half. C, cuticle: H, hypodermis: N, nerve supplying sensory bristle, Sb.

base, are usually regarded as organs of taste, which is what one might expect to find upon external parts of the body with which the food commonly comes into contact. In view of the lack of muscle fibres in these lobes, the great thickness of the cuticle might well be an adaptation to keep them rigid and extended and capable of supporting weight and pressure. The structureless tissue in the ends of the lobes may be congealed blood, which in life would help to maintain rigidity. These lobes are rudimentary or absent in the young larvae.

Conclusions for the POLYBIINAE.

Unlike the subfamilies Vespinae and Polistinae, this subfamily comprises a collection of widely differing genera, which have only a few clear-cut characters in common. One meets both with success and failure when attempting to separate the genera and species; the genus *Mischocyttarus* is an easily distinguished genus, the species of which are readily separated; on the other hand, the genera *Polybia* and *Protopolybia* appear to be indistinguishable, though perhaps one could find means of separating them if more species were examined. It is almost certain that the other three genera, *Metapolybia*, *Stelopolybia* and *Nectarinia*, can be satisfactorily distinguished from one another, and I think that examination of more species of these genera would reveal diagnostic characters for each, though they might not be the same as those that I have made use of in the key. For reasons already explained, no generic characters are suggested for *Nectarinia*, but it is included in the key for the sake of completeness, the characters used being based upon the description of *Nectarinia scutellaris*.

Du Buysson (1906) described and figured the larvae of Apoica pallida (Olivier) and Synoeca sp. in the same fashion as that of Nectarinia lecheguana (Latreille). All that one can deduce from these figures and descriptions is that the larvae are of the Polybiine type; the lower margin of the clypeus not coming below the level of the bases of the mandibles (he showed it as doing so in Nectarinia lecheguana, but this is certainly an error), and the mandibles being circular in section, and in comparison with those of the Vespinae and Eumennae, soft and slender. The mandibles of Apoica pallida, as figured, are similar to those of the genus Polistes.

In a monograph of the African Polybiine genus *Belonogaster*, du Buysson (1905) gave a description and two figures of the larva of a species of this genus; there is another drawing in a paper by Roubaud (1916). Unfortunately, practically nothing can be made out from the figures; one can see, however, that the mandibles are of the Polybiine type, and they are apparently rather similar to those of *Mischocyttarus*.

Discussion.

A few conclusions may be drawn from the results expressed in the foregoing pages. The first of these is that the larvae of the four subfamilies, EUMENINAE, VESPINAE, POLISTINAE and POLYBIINAE, can be clearly distinguished one from another. In other words, the characters of the larvae clearly confirm the existing classification deduced from the structure of the adults.

The second conclusion concerns the relationships of these subfamilies to each other. The evidence from larval characters seems to show that the EUMENINAE and VESPINAE are more closely related to one another than they are to the Polistinae and Polybinae, which in turn are fairly closely related to one another. It may help if I summarise the characters that the members of each pair have in common, not forgetting that there are numerous differences as well. Considering first the EUMENINAE and VESPINAE: both have the lower margin of the clypeus ventral to the level of the bases of the mandibles. The mandibles in both are stout, angular in cross section, strongly sclerotised, and usually tridentate apically. In both the palate bears sclerotised patches in which are conical sensillae and the posterior margin of the palate is usually clearly defined. Sometimes the Vespinae show a slight development of the spinous

processes on the palate, characteristic of the Eumeninae. The transverse ridge or lamina associated with the opening of the salivary gland, which is common in the Eumeninae, is sometimes present in the Vespinae. With regard to the Polistinae and Polybinae, the lower margin of the clypeus, at least medially, is dorsal to the level of the bases of the mandibles. The mandibles are usually slender; they are circular in cross section and are but little sclerotised; frequently they terminate in a single slender, fine pointed tooth. Forked sensory bristles are commonly present upon the mouth-parts in both subfamilies.

The combination of all these characters in common seems to indicate a true affinity between the members of each of these pairs of subfamilies. Despite these evidences of affinity, the larvae of the Eumeninae differ in a number of important respects from those of the Vespinae, but this is not so in the case of the Polistinae and Polybinae. Although the larvae of the Polistinae are easily recognised by their general appearance, the only really critical character for separating them from the Polybinae is the presence of several sensory bristles behind each labial papilla, instead of only one. It is true to say that *Mischocyttarus* is more distinct in many ways, from the other Polybine genera, than are the Polistinae from the Polybinae as a whole.

Claude-Joseph (1930) gave a small figure of the head of the larva of Zethus dicomboda (Spinola) and of Discoelius merula Curtis, both of the subfamily Zethinae; the heads seem to resemble those of the larvae of the Eumeninae; the clypeus and labrum are prominent and the mandibles are stout and tridentate.

I have shown that on larval characters the four subfamilies dealt with can be clearly separated from one another, but on the question of whether or not it is possible to distinguish the genera and species of Vespid larvae, the results do not give such an unequivocal answer. Of the four subfamilies considered, the Polyblinae is the only one of which there were larvae of a sufficient number of species and genera to form a fair test of how far these may be separated from one another. The results obtained with this subfamily, so far as one is justified in applying them to the other subfamilies, seem to show that most often one can separate both genera and species, but not always. Of the six genera represented in this subfamily, it seems that four can be satisfactorily distinguished and two cannot. Only in three of these genera were there larvae of more than one species, but in all three the species could be separated. It might of course be possible to construct keys to Vespid larvae in which two genera were dealt with as one, and yet all the species were distinguished.

Probably those genera in which the larvae have soft and colourless heads will prove the most difficult to tabulate. The various sutures and pits are very difficult to see, and the heads easily become crumpled when being mounted on slides; while the possibility of differentiation on colour markings is of course ruled out. It seems that the majority of the Polybiine genera have soft colourless heads, while the Eumeninae, Vespinae and Polistinae, particularly the first two, have well-sclerotised heads. On these grounds alone one would expect a greater measure of success in separating the genera and species of these three subfamilies than in separating those of the Polyblinae, and up to a point this probably would be so. To judge by the drawings, particularly those of Grandi, the Eumeninae show plenty of possible specific characters, but generic characters might be harder to find. Much the same applies to the Vespinae; the species could probably be distinguished, but the existing genera might prove difficult to separate. In ease of classification, the Polistinae

would probably prove to be intermediate between the EUMENINAE and VESPINAE on the one hand and the POLYBIINAE on the other.

The characters useful in classification call for some discussion. Only external characters have been used, but investigation of the internal anatomy

of Vespid larvae might yield some useful characters.

In the section on the larva of *Polistes gallicus* (L.), I have discussed the question of using the distribution and numbers of the sensillae upon the mouth-parts as a means of separating species. The conclusion is that they are of little value, owing to the high degree of variability that their numbers and positions display within one species. Nevertheless they will probably be of some value in the future, if only on account of the various forms they assume. For example, the larvae of the EUMENINAE quite frequently have large sensillae of distinctive appearance upon the labrum; accurate drawings of these might serve to distinguish some of the species. Apart from these sensillae of the mouth-parts, which, with certain exceptions, have only a small value in classification, most of the other features of the body are of value. The relative positions and sizes of the various parts of the head capsule are of great value in separating the subfamilies; this is particularly true of the clypeus and labrum. The shape of the mandibles is rather characteristic of each subfamily, and the mandibles also yield generic and specific characters. The colouring of the head capsule and the size and abundance of the hairs upon it are sometimes useful specific characters. The width of the mentum, in comparison to the width of the labrum, is a useful generic character in the POLYBIINAE. The thorax and abdomen also provide useful characters, but with the exception of the genus Mischocyttarus, these are usually of less value than those of the head. The nature of the spiracles is of some value, particularly in the VESPINAE. The presence or absence of hairs or bristles is sometimes useful and assumes considerable importance in the genus *Mischocyttarus*. Finally the shape of the last or tenth abdominal segment, on which the anus opens, frequently has a limited use.

These characters suggest a few points to be borne in mind when examining When preparing the heads for examination, the mentum and maxillae should not be separated from the head capsule, at least at first, since, once separated, it is difficult to estimate any characters which involve comparison between parts of the head capsule and parts of the mentum and maxillae. When figuring any species, on account of the importance of the relative proportions of the parts of the head, a large-scale, accurate drawing of the whole head, viewed "full face," is very desirable. Although the positions and numbers of the sensory bristles and sensillae upon the mouth-parts are seldom important, there are exceptions to this, viz. :—the presence of only one sensory bristle behind each labial papilla in the POLYBIINAE and of several in the Polistinae. Also there are characters upon the mouth-parts which are unconnected with the sensillae; for example, the spinous processes upon the palate which are a feature of the EUMENINAE, the presence or absence of a ridge in connection with the opening of the salivary gland, and other characters. Thus it is still necessary to examine the microscopic structure of the mouthparts. The age of a larva is a matter of considerable importance; as stated earlier, Peltrera found very considerable differences between a young larva of Polistes gallicus (L.) and adult ones taken from capped cells; Soika records differences between an adult larva of Eumenes pomiformis (Fabricius) and Grandi's description of a young larva of this species. I have found differences in this respect in the larvae I have examined. Evidently, wherever possible, larvae in their last instar, but not yet in the prepupal stage, should be used.

In conclusion, one may say that the classification of the larvae of the Vespidae, however interesting and illuminating it may be for its own sake, forms only a part of the much greater task of examining the comparative structure of all the families of aculeate Hymenoptera. The comparative description of aculeate larvae has, somewhat naturally, lagged behind that of the larvae of the Phytophaga and Parasitica, but a few of the main distinctions are slowly beginning to be apparent. Soika (1934) gave a tentative key to the larvae of a few families of aculeates.

The classification of aculeate larvae, in turn, is but a part of the wider task of comparing the structure of the larvae of the whole order Hymenoptera. When this has been accomplished, one may expect that one's understanding of the phylogeny of the order will have been greatly increased.

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NOTES ON THE GENUS HELIOGOMPHUS LAIDLAW, WITH DESCRIPTIONS OF TWO NEW SPECIES (ODONATA)

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WITH PLATE 1 AND THREE TEXT-FIGURES.

The genus Heliogomphus Laidlaw belongs to the subfamily Epigomphinae in which the distinguishing character is an increase in the cross neuration between the sectors of the arculus proximal to the level of the bifurcation of the Radial sector, the latter bifurcation being always more or less asymmetrical. This local increase in the cross nervures is unique, so that Heliogomphus, along with all other genera in this subfamily, must be considered as a comparatively modern product in the family GOMPHIDAE. From the evidence afforded by the character of the male anal appendages, there is every reason to believe that Heliogomphus has been derived from either Microgomphus or Macrogomphus, and of these two, the relationship appears to lie closest to the former. In Heliogomphus kelantanensis (Laidlaw) the anal appendages are very simple and approximate to the conventional type found in Gomphus, so that in this species, unless there has been a reversion to type, the characters suggest that it lies at the base of the genus. Placed originally in Gomphus, it has been removed successively to Leptogomphus and then to Heliogomphus, which fact alone proves it to be a very aberrant species.

Both in Microgomphus and Macrogomphus the superior anal appendages are characterised by possessing an inner medial branch varying in length, shape and robustness in the species. It is this branch which has evolved into a robust corkscrew-like structure and has given the lyrate character to the combined superior anal appendages of *Heliogomphus*. This is clear if the appendages of a series of species be examined, beginning with those of Microgomphus torquatus, in which the branch of the appendage is thin and weak, and passing successively to M. souteri, where the branch is more robust and greatly elongated, or to M. loogali, where the branch is taking the outward curl of the apex as in Heliogomphus, and then on to Heliogomphus retroflexus in which the branch is now much more robust and has taken on the curled or corkscrew-like character common to the whole of the Heliogomphines save kelantanensis. In H. retroflexus it will be seen that the apex of the branch has replaced the true apex of the appendage, which is now seen as a robust subapical external spine. Hereafter, by examining a series of species, it will be seen that the true apex of the appendage becomes more and more obsolescent, first as a spine, then as an angulation which becomes flattened out, curved and finally absorbed into the general outline of the outer border of the appendage. Another feature will also be noticed, namely a small outer subapical spine which is already evident in some species of Microgomphus, such as torquatus and souteri. In Heliogomphus this spine becomes greatly exaggerated and reaches its maximum in species like H. scorpio and H. lyratus. This spine is present in H. kelantanensis, but the TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 2. (DEC. 1942.)

inner branch is represented by a mere rudimentary spine. Complementary changes are also found in the shape of the inferior appendage, which is rectangular, shallowly or more or less deeply emarginate in *Microgomphus* and *H. retroflexus*, and broadly splayed at apical border, triangular and with its branches directed obliquely outwards so as to show from beneath the superior appendages in the rest of the Heliogomphines.

Venationally there is little difference to be found between *Heliogomphus* and *Microgomphus*, and the same might be said of *Macrogomphus* if allowance be made for the richer venation as a response to a larger and more heavily

built insect.

The Heliogomphines are true jungle creatures and breed in the small tributaries of larger montane streams or often in mere seepages adjoining such streams. In this respect they resemble the Microgomphines, but are not given like these to rising to the neighbouring trees, preferring rather to settle on the surrounding herbage where their shagreen colouring harmonises with their surroundings and affords a certain measure of protection. They are distributed throughout the moister parts of India, Burma, Ceylon, Malaysia, Indo-China, Borneo and the Philippines.

The genus was created in the year 1922 by Laidlaw and included primarily but a single species. To this have been added since a number of species, which were either new to science or have been transferred from other genera, so that at the present time, including two new species described in this paper, the number stands at seventeen, and the genus has grown to one of the largest and

most important in the Gomphidae.

Laidlaw chose as his type Gomphus nietneri Hagen, but the actual specimen from which he took the generic characters came from Assam and proved later to be an entirely new species which I described under the name of Heliogomphus selysi; this latter therefore becomes the genotype. Gomphus nietneri, which is known only from Ceylon, is, however, a true Heliogomphus. A list of the known species with their distribution and synonymy follows:—

1. Heliogomphus promelas (Selys).

Gomphus promelas Selys, 1873. Nilgiri Hills, Cochin, Annaimallai and Travancore Hills, S. India.

2. Heliogomphus ceylonicus (Selys).

Gomphus ceylonicus Selys, 1878. Ceylon.

3. Heliogomphus nietneri (Hagen).

Gomphus nietneri Hagen, 1878. Ceylon.

4. Heliogomphus kelantanensis (Laidlaw).

Gomphus consobrinus Laidlaw, 1902 (nom. preoc.).

Gomphus kelantanensis Laidlaw, 1902.

Leptogomphus kelantanensis Williamson, 1907. Malaysia.

5. Heliogomphus retroflexus (Ris).

Leptogomphus retroflexus Ris, 1912. Tonkin.

6. Heliogomphus scorpio (Ris).

Leptogomphus scorpio Ris, 1912. South China.

7. Heliogomphus spirillus (Fraser).

Leptogomphus spirillus Fraser, 1922. Assam.

8. Heliogomphus bakeri Laidlaw, 1925. Philippines.

9. Heliogomphus gracilis (Kruger).

Leptogomphus gracilis Kruger, 1898. Sumatra.

10. Heliogomphus blandulus Lieftinek, 1929. Borneo.

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11.	Heliogomphus drescheri Lieftinck, 1929. Java.
12.	Heliogomphus walli Fraser, 1933. Ceylon.
	Heliogomphus lyratus Fraser, 1933. Ceylon.
14.	Heliogomphus kalarensis Fraser, 1934. Nilgiri Hills, S. India.
15.	Heliogomphus selysi Fraser, 1934. Assam.
16.	Heliogomphus lieftincki sp. n. Burma.
17.	Heliogomphus cervus sp. n. Burma.
	Key to species of genus Heliogomphus.
1.	Antehumeral stripe confluent with the mesothoracic collar 2.
	Antehumeral stripe separated from the mesothoracic collar 7.
2.	Superior anal appendages simple, similar to those of genus Gomphus and
	without lateral spine
3.	Only a single black stripe on sides of thorax
	Two parallel black stripes on sides of thorax 4.
4.	Two parallel black stripes on sides of thorax
	lieftincki.
	Vesicle without spines
5.	Superior anal appendages with a robust subapical inner strongly curled
	branch which is supplanting the obtuse apex of appendage; inferior anal
	appendage with branches projecting straight backwards retroflexus. Superior anal appendages with original apex obsolete and replaced by a
	strongly curled inner branch which fades insensibly into the appendage;
	inferior anal appendage with branches widely divaricate 6.
6.	Superior anal appendages without external spine
	inferior anal appendage with branches widely divaricate 6. Superior anal appendages without external spine
7.	Sides of thorax immaculate blandulus.
	Sides of thorax with two black stripes 8.
8.	External spine of superior anal appendages of great size
	External spine of superior anal appendages of moderate size 10.
<i>9</i> .	External spine of superior anal appendages acuminate, directed straight outwards; superior humeral spot absent. Species confined to Ceylon lyratus.
	External spine of superior anal appendages obtuse and directed back-
	wards and ventrad; superior humeral spot present. Species confined to
	South China
10.	Antehumeral stripes sinuous; superior humeral spot present; vesicle of
	female produced posteriorly into two long outwardly curved horns. Species
	confined to Burma
	Antehumeral stripe straight: superior humeral spot present or absent;
11	female vesicle without horns (save in <i>promelas</i>)
11.	narrow notab: superior anal appendages lonowed posteriorly by a deep
	narrow notch; superior humeral spot absent
	a very shallow concavity; superior humeral spot present or absent 13.
12.	Lateral spine of superior anal appendages obtuse, directed backwards;
	antehumeral stripes reduced to short oval spots; species confined to Ceylon
	walli.
	Lateral spine of superior anal appendages acuminate, directed obliquely out-
	wards and backwards; antehumeral stripes elongate ovals. Species
1.0	confined to Bengal
13.	Superior humeral spot absent; female with vesicle produced backwards
	into two long outwardly curved horns
	Superior humeral spot present; female vesicle simple

- 15. Outer margin of superior anal appendages bent at less than a right angle
 - kalarensis.

 -. Outer margin of superior anal appendages bent at a complete right angle . 16.
- -. Face traversed by a chain of three yellow spots at the level of the postclypeus ceylonicus.

(Note: In my key to Heliogomphus given in 1934, Fauna British India, Odonata 2: 324, I gave in error ceylonicus as without an upper humeral spot.)

Heliogomphus cervus sp. n.

Male. Abdomen 37 mm. Hind-wing 32 mm.

Head: labium dull brown, midlobe tipped with black; labrum glossy black marked with two transversely oval greenish-yellow basal spots; rest of head black save for the genae and a broad greenish-white stripe on the crest of frons. Occiput slightly excavate, with rounded or sinuous border, the vesicle rising as a steep curved ridge between the lateral ocelli and deeply excavate anteriorly. Prothorax black with a narrow anterior collar, a geminate dorsal spot and a postero-lateral one on each side of middle lobe, and a middorsal linear spot on the posterior lobe all greenish-yellow. Thorax black on dorsum, greenishyellow laterally where the sutures are mapped out broadly with black. Dorsum with a narrowly interrupted mesothoracic collar, narrow slightly sinuous antehumeral stripes pointed at both ends and not quite meeting the mesothoracic collar or the antealar sinus, and a small triangular spot on the inner side of the upper part of the humeral suture all greenish-yellow. Legs black, anterior femora with a yellow stripe on the inner sides, armature as for genus. Wings hyaline, palely enfumed along the margins in old specimens; nodal index $\frac{10-17}{11-12} \left| \frac{10-10}{11-11} \right|$, pterostigma poorly but definitely braced, blackish-brown, an occasional supplementary cubital nervure in fore-wings, only a single row of postanal cells in fore-wings, anal triangle 3-celled, the middle cell pentagonal in shape, other venational details as for genus. Abdomen black marked with yellow as follows:-segment 1 entirely so save for a subdorsal black spot on each side; segment 2 with a middorsal trilobate narrow spot extending the length of the carina, and a spot on each side of the oreillets and a small apico-lateral spot; segments 3 to 8 with the middorsal carina finely yellow, the former segment with a basolateral triangular spot on each side. Anal appendages of the usual generic lyrate shape: superiors greenish-yellow with base and apex of lateral spine blackish, this latter spine being directed outwards and of very robust character: the apices well curled and turning rather abruptly upward (figs. 2, 3), inferior appendage glossy black, its branches diverging at an angle of 45 degrees and projecting well out from beneath the superiors.

Female. Abdomen 37 mm. Hind-wing 35 mm.

Markings entirely similar to those of the male; venation rather closer and nodal index slightly higher; an occasional supplementary cubital nervure in the fore-wings as in the male; sculpture of occiput and vesicle highly specialised, the postero-lateral corners of the latter produced into long robust curved hornlike processes which project well over the occiput and which evidently interlock with the male inferior anal appendage (figs. 1, 3, 6). Anal appendages yellow, short, subcylindrical, obtuse at apex but produced outwardly as a short fine spine.

Distribution: UPPER BURMA. Described from a pair taken by Col. F. Wall at Maymyo, 4.vii.25. Type in my collection. The male anal appendages are closely similar to those of H. selysi Fraser but the lateral spine is directed more outwardly and the branches of the inferior appendage are shorter and more

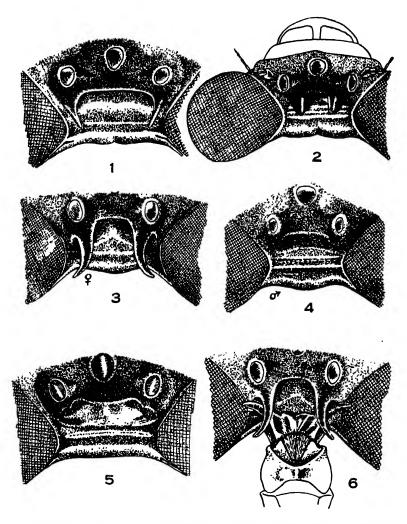


Fig. 1.—Occipital armature of: 1, Heliogomphus promelas (Solys), female. 2, Heliogomphus lieftincki sp. n., female. 3, Heliogomphus cervus sp. n., female. 4, male. 5, Heliogomphus promelas (Solys), male. 6, Heliogomphus cervus sp. n., female, showing the male anal appendages interlocked with the occipital armature of the female.

divergent. The sculpturing of the occiput and vesicle are also different, the antehumeral stripes are shorter and more divaricate and the upper humeral spot is absent. From other species, the shape of the anal appendages and the armature of the vesicle, especially of that of the female, will serve to distinguish this new species.

Heliogomphus lieftincki sp. n.

Female. Abdomen 30 mm. Hind-wing 27 mm.

Head: labium yellowish, apices of lobes black; labrum black, marked with two well-separated large subquadrate spots of greenish-yellow; anteclypeus, genae and a stripe across the crest of frons bright greenish-yellow. Occiput slightly convex but with a notch at its middle and a deep sulcus running transversely across it; vesicle rising steeply from the anterior occilus to form a prominent ridge, the outer ends of which are produced into obtuse horns which do not, however, extend over the occiput and which are shorter and stouter than in *H. promelas* (Selys). Prothorax black, unmarked. Thorax black on dorsum, marked with a complete mesothoracic collar which is broadly confluent with rather broad antehumeral stripes which extend right up to the antealar sinus and form inverted yellow figures-of-7 with the collar; there is also a small triangular upper humeral spot of the same colour. Laterally greenish-yellow with two oblique black stripes on the sutures,

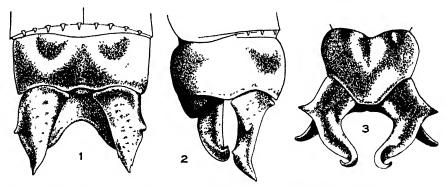


Fig. 2.—Terminal segment and anal appendages of: 1, Heliogomphus kelantanensis (Laidlaw), male, dorsal view. 2, The same seen from the left side. 3, Heliogomphus cervus sp. n., male, dorsal view.

the posterior of which is very narrow. Wings slightly tinted with yellow at bases; pterostigma yellow between thick black nervures; venation rather open, nodal index $\frac{11-15}{9-11}$ | $\frac{15-11}{12-9}$.

no accessory cubital nervures. Legs black, coxae yellow, armature as for the genus. Abdomen black, marked with yellow as follows: segment 1 yellow marked with a subdorsal quadrate black spot each side, segment 2 with a middorsal sagittate spot extending the whole length of carina and with the point of the arrow directed apicad; segments 3 to 7 with the middorsal carina finely yellow, whilst laterally a broad yellow stripe extends from segments 2 to 7, complete on segments 2 and 3 but broken by the jugal suture on the following segments. Vulvar scale very small, triangular and inconspicuous. Anal appendages yellow, shortly conical.

Distribution: UPPER BURMA. A single female taken by Col. F. Wall, 3.vi.25, the type, and now in my collection. The highly specialised character of the vesicle will at once serve to distinguish this species. This organ is produced into spines in both H. promelas and H. cervus, but in the former these are longer and finer, as well as widely separated, whilst in the latter they are much longer, more robust, curved and extend beyond the hinder border of the occiput. In these two species, also, the antehumeral stripes are well separated from the mesothoracic collar. The only other species known from northern India, H. selysi Fraser, has the vesicle simple and the antehumeral stripes and mesothoracic collar not confluent.

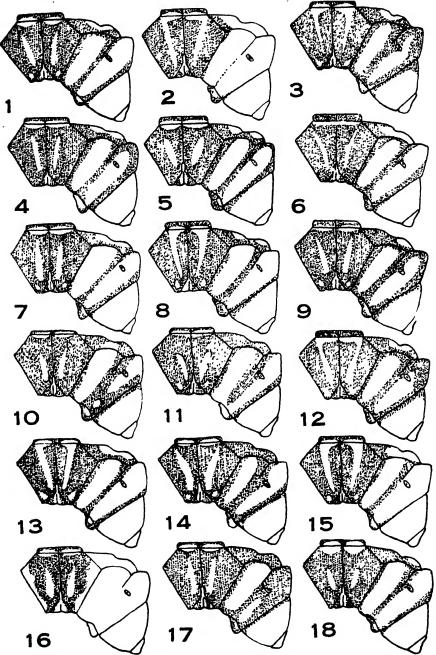


Fig. 3.—Diagrammatic representation of the thoracic markings of: 1, Heliogomphus ceylonicus (Selys). 2, H. kelantanensis (Laidlaw). 3, H. bakeri Laidlaw. 4, H. promelas (Selys). 5, H. spirillus (Fraser). 6, H. retroflexus (Ris). 7, H. kalarensis Fraser. 8, H. gracilis (Kruger). 9, H. nietneri (Selys). 10, H. lyratus Fraser. 11, H. selysi Fraser. 12, H. scorpio (Ris). 13, H. lieftincki sp. n. 14, H. cervus sp. n. 15, H. drescheri Lieftinck. 16, H. blandulus Lieftinck. 17, H. promelas (Selys), melanotic form. 18, H. walli Fraser.

Heliogomphus kalarensis Fraser.

Since the above was written, I have found the female of *H. kalarensis* Fraser, hitherto undescribed, among a number of duplicate specimens of *H. promelas* (Selys) which I was engaged in setting up. The specimen, a particularly large one, was labelled as belonging to the latter species but with a query. It was taken on the Kotagiri Ghat, Nilgiri Hills, S. India, a ghat which is separated from the Mettupalayam Ghat by a spur of the Nilgiris rising to 6000 ft. Kalar, where the type of *H. kalarensis* was taken, lies at the foot of the latter ghat not far from where the two ghats part company. Only two species of *Heliogomphus* have been taken in the Nilgiris in five years' continuous collecting, and as the female of *H. promelas* is well known, there can exist little doubt but that this female belongs to *H. kalarensis*, with the male of which it agrees closely. The description follows:—

Female. Abdomen 42 mm. Hind-wing 37 mm.

Markings closely similar to those of the male; the yellow point on occiput confined to the posterior aspect of that structure; the upper humeral point almost obsolete; the antehumeral stripes just meeting the mesothoracic collar. Wings palely tinted with yellow at bases; pterostigma dark ochreous between thick black nervures, braced in three wings only; venation similar to the male but nodal index slightly higher. Markings of abdomen similar to male but baso-lateral spot on segment six larger and more conspicuous. Anal appendages black, shortly conical. Vertex of head without the two conspicuous long horns found in *H. promelas*, these being represented by two inconspicuous tubercles.

Distribution:—S. India: Kotagiri Ghat, Nilgiri Hills, 9.vii.1933 (F. C. Fraser). This allotype female is in my own collection at present but, like all other types in this collection, will be deposited eventually in the British Museum. It is to be distinguished from H. promelas by the absence of the horns on vertex of head, this latter species being the only other one found in S. India.

The present paper offers a suitable opportunity for correcting some synonymy in the family GOMPHIDAE:—

Gomphus abditus Needham = Gomphus amnicola Walsh syn. n.

Onychogomphus ardens Needham = Onychogomphus camelus Martin syn. n.

To the genus Lamelligomphus should now be added the following species placed in genus Onychogomphus:—O. camelus Martin, O. ringens Needham, O. ridens Needham, O. micans Needham, O. ludens Needham and O. formosanus Oguma.

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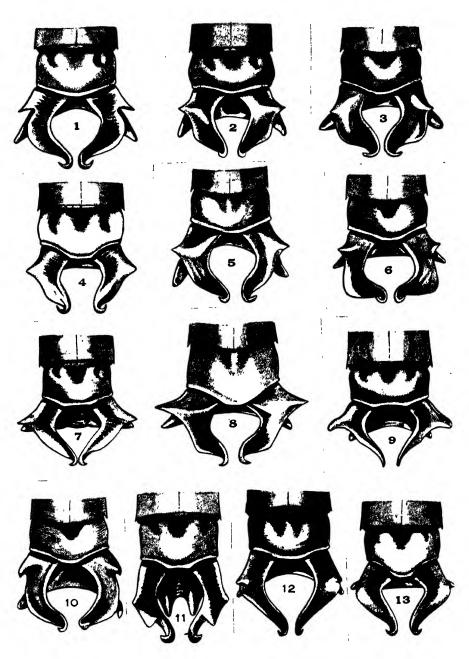
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EXPLANATION OF PLATE 1.

Terminal segment and male anal appendages of: 1, Heliogomphus spirillus (Fraser).

2, Heliogomphus promelas (Selys). 3, Heliogomphus kalarensis Fraser. 4, Heliogomphus blandulus Lieftinck. 5, Heliogomphus selysi Fraser. 6, Heliogomphus nietneri (Selys). 7, Heliogomphus drescheri Lieftinck. 8, Heliogomphus lyratus Fraser. 9, Heliogomphus scorpio (Ris). 10, Heliogomphus walli Fraser. 11, Heliogomphus retroflexus (Ris). 12, Heliogomphus bakeri Laidlaw. 13, Heliogomphus gracilis (Kruger).

CHINESE TRICHOPTERA: A COLLECTION MADE BY MR. M. S. YANG IN FOOCHOW

By Martin E. Mosely.

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WITH FIFTY-SEVEN TEXT-FIGURES.

An extensive collection of Trichoptera made by Mr. M. S. Yang in Foochow, and sent to the Imperial Institute of Entomology, is of considerable interest. Good series of many species were secured, in one, no fewer than 349 examples, and, altogether, the collection totalled 708 specimens.

Four genera, Apatidelia, Chimarrha, Pseudagapetus and Pseudoneureclipsis, are new to the Chinese fauna, the first being new to science. It should be added that though new to China as now politically constituted, Chimarrha has been recorded in Formosa.

Of the 37 species listed in this paper, 19 are new to the Chinese fauna and of these 14 are new to science. A single female *Pseudoncureclipsis* and a *Rhyacophila* without abdomen are left undetermined beyond the genus, and perhaps attention should be drawn to some uncertainty in the determination of *Diplectrona melli* Ulmer, of which only females are present.

The material, with all types and paratypes of new species, has been kindly presented to the British Museum by the Imperial Institute of Entomology, and is now incorporated in the Museum collection. The locality, in every case, is the vicinity of Foochow, and the only dates available, except in a few particular instances which are indicated, are the years 1935–1936, 1936–1937.

LIMNOPHILIDAE.

Apatidelia gen. n.

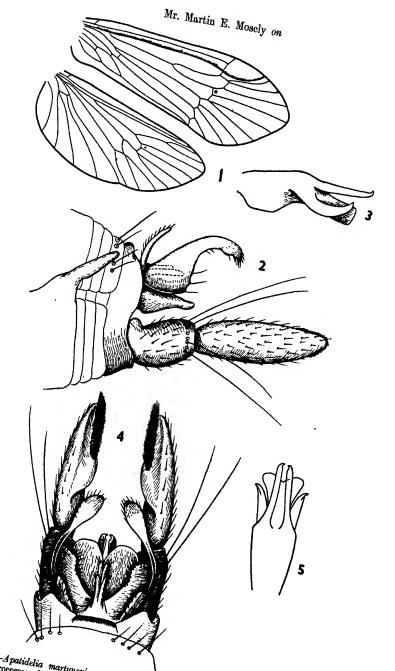
The genus differs from Apatidea in the posterior wing where the radius is not confluent with the subcosta towards its extremity. It differs from Apatania in having superior appendages, and from both these genera in possessing lateral processes arising from the 5th abdominal segment. Such processes, although frequently present in other genera, have been hitherto unknown in the LIMNOPHLIDAE, though Betten mentions that the American genus Allomyia is characterised by the presence of a retractile filament in a similar position in the male sex only. The processes of Apatidelia do not have the appearance of being retractile. Spurs 1, 2, 4.

Genotype, A. martynovi sp. n.

Apatidelia martynovi sp. n. figs. 1-5.

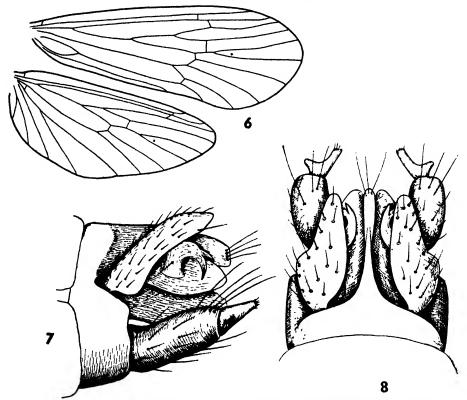
Insect nearly black; anterior wings dark brown; radius lined with a row of close, short, very black hairs from the apex nearly to the base; distal portion of the radius almost confluent with the 1st apical sector; in the posterior wing there are some long, black hairs lining the media.

Genitalia 3.—Apical margin of the 8th tergite bearing a group of four stiff hairs at each side; apical margin of the 9th tergite, widely excised with a short, strongly pigmented bar along its centre; superior appendages short, slender, strongly chitinized, slightly curved TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 2 (DEC. 1942.)



Figs. 1-5.—Apatidelia martynovi sp. n. 3. 1. wings; 2. genitalia lateral; 3. penis, lower processes of the upper penis-cover and sheaths lateral; 4. genitalia dorsal; 5.

and directed upwards; intermediate appendages large, base concave with the lower basal margin strongly dilated; midway the appendage is constricted and the apices are dilated, twisted over and slightly inturned; arising between the bases of the appendages are two pairs of short processes, closely adpressed, the upper the shorter; there is an upper peniscover in two parts, the upper membranous with an excised apical margin, the lower consisting of a pair of strongly chitinized rods with inturned, hooked apices nearly touching each other; penis with a widely excised apical margin and a pair of strong, straight sheaths, widely divergent at their apices; inferior appendages two-jointed, very long, basal joint half the length of the terminal joint which bears a mat of coarse, black bristles on its inner



Figs. 6-8.—Psilotreta ochina sp. n. J. 6. wings; 7. genitalia lateral; 8. dorsal.

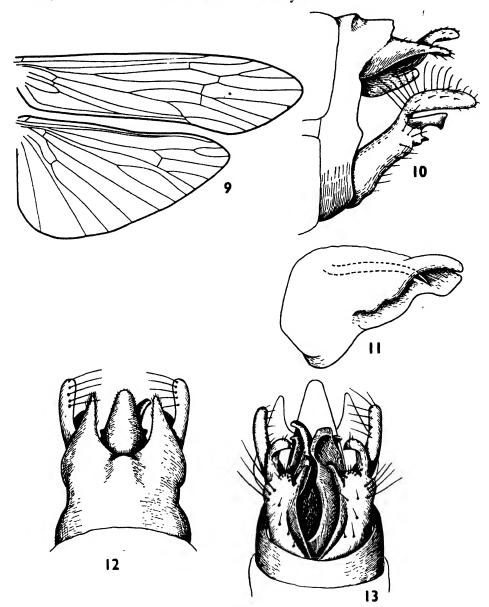
surface at the apex; there is a pair of large, fleshy lateral processes arising from the 5th segment; attached to the base of each process, within the walls of the abdomen, is a membranous sac.

Length of the anterior wing 3 7 mm.

ODONTOCERIDAE.

Psilotreta ochina sp. n. figs. 6-8.

Insect yellowish all over with the exception of the oculi and thorax which are dark. Genitalia J.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite produced in a long, slender process tapering from a wide base to a slightly dilated but slender apex armed with a few bristles; the process is deep from the side; on each side are the superior appendages, leaf-shaped,



Figs. 9-13.—Leptocerus inchinus sp. n. 3. 9. wings; 10. genitalia lateral; 11. penis and lower penis-cover lateral; 12. genitalia dorsal; 13. ventral and slightly from behind.

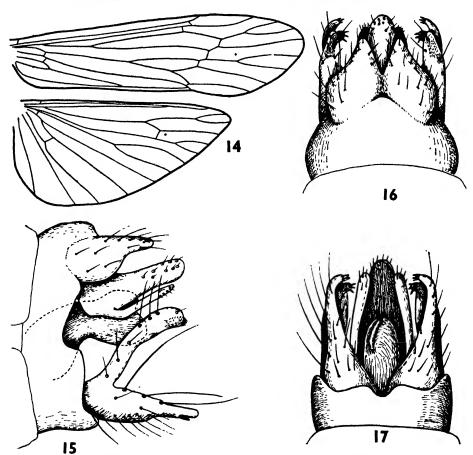
broad at the base where the outer margin is slightly produced; upper penis-cover wi both from above and from the side, apical margin cleft at its centre, upper surface furnished on each side with a stout, curved spine, bifurcate at its apex; penis straight, with a membranous and excised apex; inferior appendages two-jointed, basal joint long and stout, terminal short, shoe-shaped, sole directed distally, heel well defined, short, toe pointing inward with a truncate and strongly serrate apical margin.

Length of the anterior wing 3 and 9 6 mm.

LEPTOCERIDAE.

Leptocerus inchinus sp. n. figs. 9-13.

General appearance tawny-brown. Head and basal joints of the antennae clothed with dense and rather coarse, greyish-white hair, remaining joints strongly annulated with wide rings of white hair, covering about a third of the length of each joint at its base; palpi and legs dark ochraceous, covered with greyish-white hair; anterior wings tawny, sparsely clothed with short, white hairs; pterostigma well defined and extensive, forming an inverted, triangular patch with a wide base on the costa, and the apex covering the cross-



Figs. 14-17.—Leptocerus yangi sp. n. J. 14. wings; 15. genitalia lateral; 16. dorsal; 17. ventral.

vein closing the discoidal cell; the two lower cross-veins of the anastomosis in line as in the European species fulvus.

Genitalia &.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite produced at its centre in a small, raised riangle, angles produced in large, triangular plates with produced slender apices; in the aperture between these plates, from above, is a large, conical upper penis-cover beneath which is a pair of stout penis-sheaths (?) with angular apices directed slightly outwards, from beneath; penis forming a down-curving and acute spine; lower penis-cover asymmetrical, consisting of a pair of down-curving processes of which the apex of one is acute

and the other a broad and rather shapeless plate; inferior appendages trifurcate, the first and upper fork long, curving slightly downward, fringed with widely spaced hairs on its upper margin; the second fork shorter than the first, apex hooked inward; the third fork the shortest, appearing as an inwardly-directed spur arising from the inner margin of the second.

Length of the anterior wing ♂ 14 mm.; ♀ 12 mm.

Leptocerus yangi sp. n. figs. 14-17.

The type is not in a condition fit to allow of a description of its external appearance and has now been mounted in balsam.

Genitalia 3.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite produced in a pair of triangular plates with acute apices and rounded outer margins, bulging towards the base; beneath these is a large, conical upper penis-cover, deep at the base from the side and curving slightly upwards; under each lateral margin of the cover is a slender, upwardly directed process; penis short, stout, apex, seen from behind, appearing as a pair of parallel plates, two large spines concealed within it near the base; inferior appendages trifurcate, upper fork long, rather wide and membranous, dilated at the apex from the side, with a small and more strongly chitinized branch arising towards the apex and with a small, heavily fringed shelf situated on the inner margin near the base; the lower or third fork nearly as long as the upper, stouter and sparsely fringed with long hairs, apex inturned and toothed; apical margin of the 9th sternite excised at its centre.

Length of the anterior wing 38 mm.; \$7 mm.

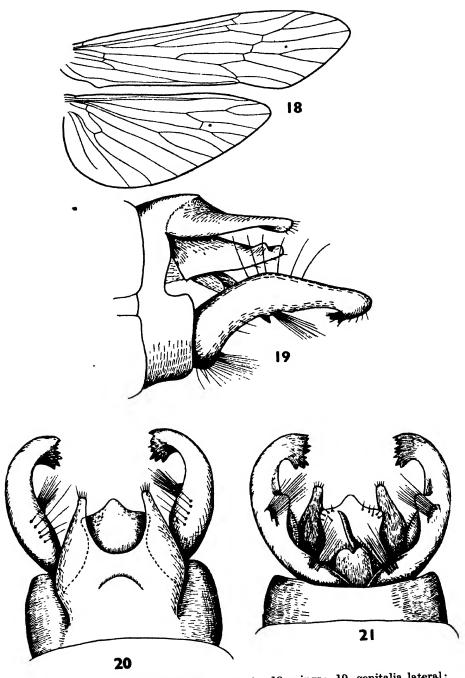
I have pleasure in dedicating this species to Mr. M. S. Yang, whose extensive collections in the Foochow district have provided many additions to the British Museum collections.

Leptocerus fooensis sp. n. figs. 18-21.

In a series of seven examples, there is a slight variation in the appearance of the wings, possibly owing to partial denudation. In the best preserved example, the anterior wings are of a rich, reddish-brown hue with a small dark patch at the distal, lower border, spreading into the fringe. In the more denuded specimens, there is an indistinct, dark speckling over a pale reddish-grey ground. Head and basal joint of the antenna clothed with white hairs, remaining joints fawn-colour conspicuously ringed with white at the base of each joint; palpi fulvous; legs clothed for the most part with dense and short white hair excepting the fore-legs where the white hairs are conspicuous only in small patches at the base of each joint.

Genitalia 3.—9th tergite produced at its centre in a small raised triangle beneath which is a broad plate with a round excision in its apical margin to leave a pair of wide, triangular processes with acute apices; in the excision may be seen the upper penis-cover which is broad, produced slightly at the centre of its apical margin; penis slender, strongly chitinized, arching slightly downwards; lower penis-cover spatula-shaped with an excision at the centre of its apical margin; inferior appendages unbranched, apices truncate and very serrate, inturned, with the lower angle produced downwards to enclose a rounded excision between itself and the main stem; at the base of the excision there is a small wart, or process with a second, still smaller, by its side; upper inner margin projecting towards its centre over the lower to form a narrow shelf; inner margin fringed with widely spaced hairs; a thick tuft of hairs on the inner under margin at the base and another at about midway; these tufts are very conspicuous in the dried insect.

Length of the anterior wing 3 9 mm.; 27 mm.



Figs. 18-21.—Leptocerus fooensis sp. n. J. 18. wings; 19. genitalia lateral; 20. dorsal; 21. ventral.

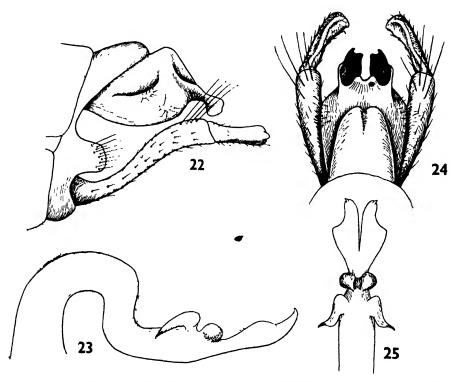
TRANS. R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 2. (DEC. 1942.)

HYDROPSYCHIDAE.

Hydropsyche simulata sp. n. figs. 22-25.

Insect with dark, reddish-brown wings. Antennae pale, with very conspicuous brown annulations but without the usual diagonal stripe.

Genitalia &.—Terminal tergite ending in a thimble-shaped projection with a central dorsal furrow and an excised apical margin; beyond this is a large dorsal plate, very deep from the side, with the distal end divided in a pair of rectangular, downsloping processes with concave upper surfaces and truncate apical margins of which the outer angles are



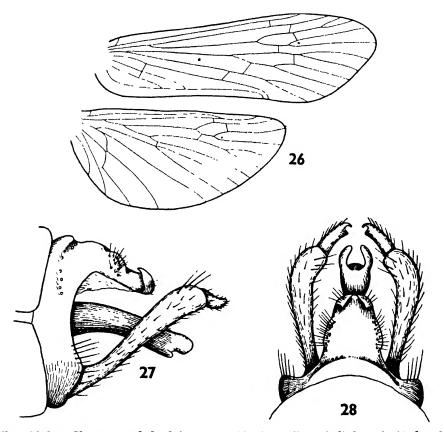
Figs. 22–25.—*Hydropsyche simulata* sp. n. 3. 22. genitalia lateral; 23. penis lateral; 24. genitalia dorsal; 25. penis dorsal.

slightly produced and hooked; from beneath, the apices are seen to be broad, flat and somewhat star-shaped; from the side, there is a rounded excision in the under margin to leave a dilated apex; side pieces of the 9th segment rectangularly produced and fringed; penis with the apex much dilated, the apical margin deeply cleft, each side narrowly produced to terminate in a small hook; below the apex, the stem is constricted and at this point is a pair of brown, rounded nodules near which arises a pair of membranous processes directed basally along the shaft of the penis and terminating in small, strongly chitinized spurs directed outwards; inferior appendages two-jointed, terminal about half the length of the basal joint with the apex dilated, apical margin truncate.

Length of the anterior wing 3 7 mm., 9 mm.

The species described above closely resembles Martynov's H. valvata, recorded from Semipalatinsk, southern Siberia. It differs in the following

points. The wings of valvata are pale and clothed with yellowish hair. Those of simulata are darkish brown. In valvata, according to the figure, the processes of the dorsal plate have acute apices, directed distally. In simulata, the apices are truncate and the processes are directed downward. In valvata the apex of the penis is rounded. In simulata, it is deeply cleft and, from the side, produced and acute. In valvata, the terminal joint of the inferior appendage has an acute apex, that of simulata has a truncate apex.



Figs. 26-28.—Cheumatopsyche banksi sp. n. J. 26. wings; 27, genitalia lateral; 28. dorsal.

Cheumatopsyche banksi sp. n. figs. 26-28.

General appearance characteristic of the majority of Cheumatopsyche species, namely, pale brownish, with faintly irrorated wings, the pterostigma being unusually strongly indicated, particularly when viewed by transmitted light. In the denuded anterior wing, various brownish streaks are apparent, one covering the middle of the radius and extending downward towards the base of the discoidal cell, another bordering the cubitus, which shows as a white line through it, a third covers the entire region about the anal veins, extending into the post-costal area.

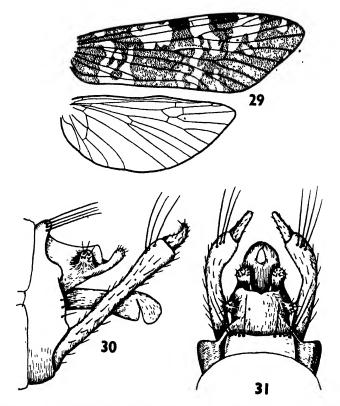
Genitalia 3.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite produced and sparsely fringed with stiff hairs which continue round the tergite; dorsal plate tapering slightly to a blunt apex, a pair of hairy warts about midway, extending down over the lateral border; apex bifurcate

and turned back over the plate so that there is a small, hooked spur, as seen from the side; penis scarcely dilated at the apex which is widely bifurcate; inferior appendages two-jointed, terminal joint very short, apex acute and hooked inwards to leave a rounded excision.

Length of the anterior wing 3 9 mm., 28 mm.

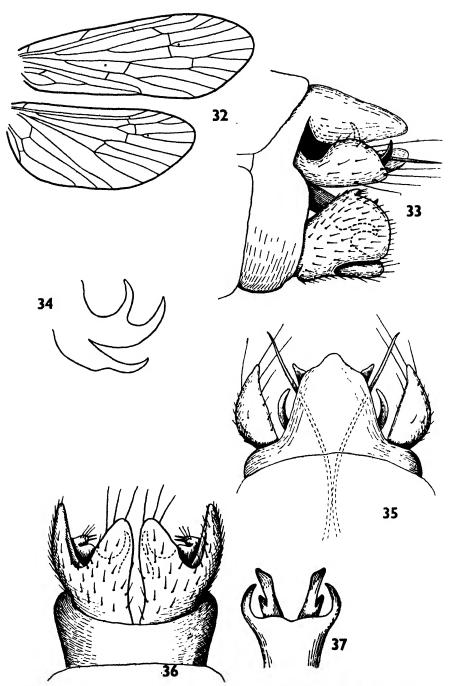
Cheumatopsyche dubitans sp. n. figs. 29-31.

This species forms an exception in the genus inasmuch as it has the anterior wings strongly patterned in brown and pale yellow. As indicated in the figure, the wing is



Figs. 29-31.—Cheumatopsyche dubitans sp. n. 3. 29. wings; 30. genitalia lateral; 31. dorsal.

generally dark with three conspicuous pale patches extending from the costa half-way across the wing, with further indeterminate markings, particularly one towards the base, extending upwards from the lower margin and another beneath the central patch which it practically meets to form a band across the wing. Neuration as is usual in the genus except for the presence of a small fork No. 1 in the posterior wing. As the absence of this fork is not completely constant in *Cheumatopsyche*, I do not consider that its presence in this species and the unusual colour constitute sufficient grounds for the erection of a new genus. Head dark, oculi nearly black; antennae pale with a slight indication of a diagonal streak on the basal joints as found in *Hydropsyche*; palpi ochraceous; legs ochraceous with brown patches.



Figs. 32-37.—Plectrocnemia potchina sp. n. J. 32. wings; 33. genitalia lateral; 34. lower penis-cover (?) lateral; 35. genitalia dorsal, inferior appendages not shewn; 36. inferior appendages and 9th sternite; 37. lower penis-cover (?) ventral.

Genitalia &.—Apical margin of the 9th torgite produced at its centre and truncate, bearing four or five long hairs towards each angle; dorsal plate with the lower lateral margins much produced and strongly chitinized to form fairly long, upcurving processes with dilated apices; between them, the plate is membranous with apical margin slightly excised; a large, wide wart, almost amounting to a process, towards the base of the plate, fringed and directed outwardly; penis, from above, with a slender stem and dilated, bifurcate apex, the fork caliper-shaped with the apices touching; from the side, the fork appears as a rounded plate overhanging a narrow shelf; inferior appendages two-jointed, terminal joint small, tapering and curving upwards; lateral margin of the 9th segment produced to make a very small sidepicce and sparsely fringed with stiff hairs.

Length of the anterior wing 3 and 2 7 mm.

One example dated 27.iv.1938; an example already in the British Museum is labelled China only and is lacking an abdomen.

POLYCENTROPIDAE.

Plectrocnemia potchina sp. n. figs. 32-37.

Insect of moderate size with brownish, irrorated wings.

Genitalia &.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite strongly produced and triangular; superior appendages broad, leaf-shaped; penis-sheaths long, fine, divergent at the apices where they are separated from each other by the width of the segment; between them lies the membranous penis; on each side are three very stout, upcurving prongs arising from a common base, one behind the other, perhaps forming part of a lower peniscover; inferior appendages broad and branched; outer branch broader than the inner, from the side; a small process armed with a few bristles at its apex arising from the upper margin of the outer branch on its inner surface and a sinuous process arising also from the inner surface, towards the centre.

Length of the anterior wing 3 6 mm., 2 8 mm.

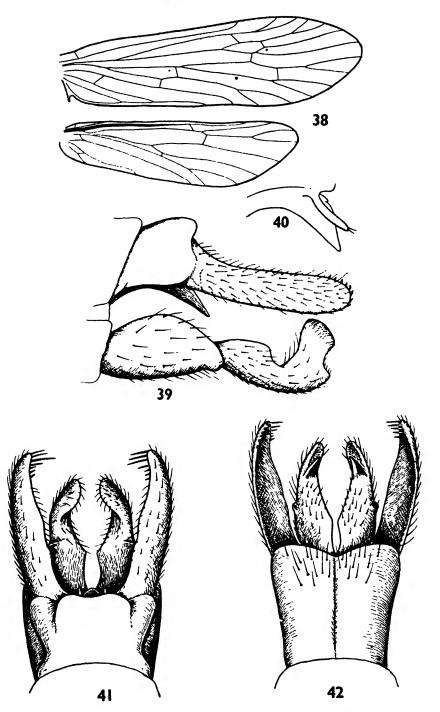
PSYCHOMYIDAE.

Ecnomus foochowensis sp. n. figs. 38-42.

General appearance as in the European species Ecnomus tenellus Ramb. Spurs 3, 4, 4. Genitalia 3.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite slightly excised; superior appendages very long, with fairly closely fringed inner margins and short teeth at the apices; from the side, they are of equal thickness throughout their length; there is a minute branch tipped with a few hairs arising from the inner surface towards the base; upper peniscover in the form of a pair of short, straight spines, each tipped with one or two bristles; penis short, its apex appearing from the side as a triangular shelf directed downwards; there is an obscure structure, only visible in the cleared preparation, which may be a lower peniscover; it lies mainly within the 9th sternite, extending beyond the base of the inferior appendage; inferior appendages large, boot-shaped, heels directed distally, toes stout and directed upwards; 9th sternite strongly produced, with a central, longitudinal, impressed line.

Length of the anterior wing 3 and 4 mm.

 $\it E.\ foothowensis$, when pinned and dry, very closely resembles the European species $\it tenellus$ Rambur.

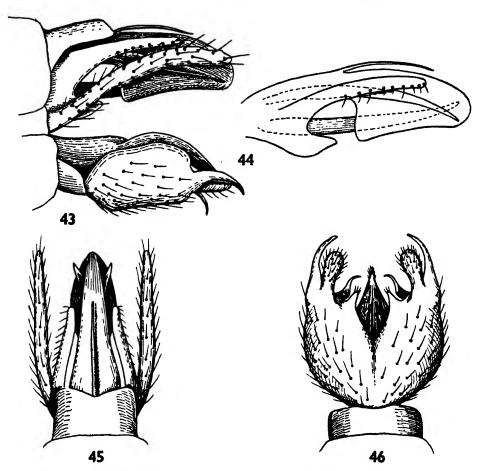


Figs. 38-42.—Ecnomus foochowensis sp. n. 3. 38. wings; 39. genitalia lateral; 40. penis and upper penis-cover lateral; 41. genitalia dorsal; 42. ventral.

Tinodes chinchina sp. n. figs. 43-46.

Insect very small and yellowish.

Genitalia &.—Dorsal plate short, nearly square, with the apical margin excised; beneath it, attached to the upper penis-cover, is a long, slender, transparent spine; superior appendages long and rather stout, completely denuded of fringe on the upper surface in the example under description; penis and upper penis-cover obscure, as long as the superior appendages, wide from the side, with the upper margin curving over slightly to make a broad beak; a pair of fine, spine-like penis sheaths; inferior appendages branched; there



Figs. 43-46.—Tinodes chinchina sp. n. 3. 43. genitalia lateral; 44. penis, upper peniscover etc., lateral; 45. genitalia dorsal; 46. ventral.

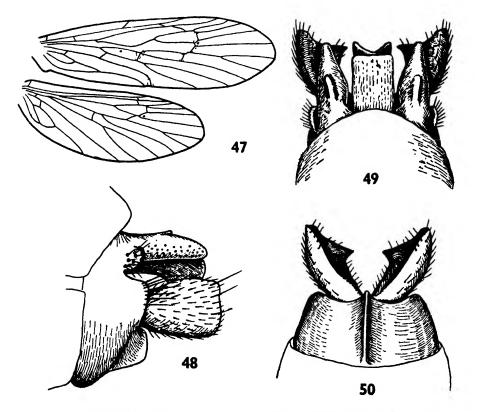
is a very broad base from which the outer branch, a stout, curved spine, arises at the apex; the second and inner branch is slightly shorter than the outer and broad, with an obtuse apex; the third forms a short, very fine, curved spine, arching downward from the base of the second; the fourth arises from the inner margin of the appendage, below the other three as seen from beneath; inside the bases of the inferior appendages, and uniting them, is a single process, broad at the base with an acute, produced apex, curving downward, as seen from the side.

Length of the anterior wing 3 and 23 mm.

PHILOPOTAMIDAE.

Chimarrha cachina sp. n. figs. 47-50.

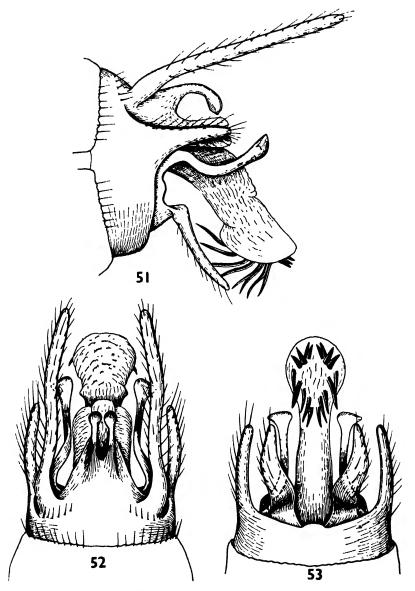
Insect black. In both wings, fork No. 1 is sessile and very narrow; in the anterior, on the denuded membrane, are three conspicuous, white marks, one at the base of fork No. 2 extending upwards along the cross-vein closing the discoidal cell and downwards along the cross-vein of the median cell; another at the basal angle of the median cell and a third at the arculus; in the posterior wing, fork No. 2 extends a little way beneath the discoidal cell.



Figs. 47-50.—Chimarrha cachina sp. n. 3. 47. wings; 48. genitalia lateral; 49. dorsal; 50. ventral.

Genitalia 3.—9th tergite membranous; superior appendages fairly long, tapering and with a small ridge along the centre of the upper surface from near the base to about half-way, rather wide from the side, with a hairy wart on the outer margin at the base; penis straight, with a pair of internal, black spines; lower penis-cover nearly the same width as the penis, slightly longer, apex excised; inferior appendages short, with broadly truncate apical margins; viewed from behind, they are very thick with the distal surface slightly concave; the upper, inner angles are produced to form black spurs; there is a pronounced keel to the 9th sternite; no ventral processes.

Length of the anterior wing 3 5 mm., 2 6 mm.



Figs. 51-53.—Stenopsyche banksi sp. n. 3. 51. genitalia lateral; 52, dorsal, lower branches of inferior appendages not shewn; 53. 9th sternite, inferior appendages and penis.

Stenopsyche banksi sp. n. figs. 51-53.

General appearance dark brown with the usual dark and yellowish patches on the anterior wings.

Genitalia J.—Apical margin of the 8th segment thickened and set with a row of hairs; superior appendages long and slender; dorsal plate with the apical margin excised; at the base arises a pair of short processes set close together side by side and arching downward; sidepieces of the 9th segment produced and slender, extending nearly as far as the

apices of the upper branches of the inferior appendages; upper penis-cover membranous with excised apical margin; penis much exserted in the type, long, armed throughout its length with short spines which are directed distally and are contained within a membranous sleeve; at the apex, the penis projects beyond this sleeve and turns down and under so that the spines are here free; inferior appendages two-branched, inner branches a little longer than the processes of the dorsal plate, elbowed slightly towards their bases, apices dilated to obliquely truncate apical margins with the outer angles produced in minute spurs; outer branches short and slender, bent abruptly downward from near their bases.

Length of the anterior wing 3 and 20 mm.

There is an additional 3 paratype in the Museum collection bearing the label "Formosa, A. E. Wileman".

RHYACOPHILIDAE.

Pseudagapetus chinensis sp. n. figs. 54-57.

Insect brownish; wings with dark, reddish-brown clothing, darker towards the fringes; neuration as is usual in the genus.

Genitalia J.—Apical margin of the 9th tergite deeply excised; in the excision there is a long, stout, hood-like plate, perhaps united to an upper penis-cover; the centre is membranous with the sides a little more chitinized, apex excised; the plate is deep from the side; on each side is a slender, superior appendage, apex not dilated and inclining slightly outward, fringed with long, widely spaced hairs which, from the side, are seen to be directed upwards; penis concealed in the hood of the dorsal plate or upper peniscover; inferior appendages long and stout, bearing two blackened warts on the inner surfaces, that nearer the apex the smaller; a pointed process, fringed on its lower surface, to the 6th sternite.

Length of the anterior wings 3 and 9 4 mm.

List of species in the Yang collection.

LIMNOPHILIDAE.

Nothopsyche intermedia Martynov. Proc. zool. Soc. Lond. 1930: 101, 1930 (Shensi Province). 3 33.

* Apatidelia martynovi sp. n. 1 3.

SERICOSTOMATIDAE.

Crunoeciella flava Ulmer. Arch. Naturg. 91 A. 5:83-86, figs. 75-79, 1926 (Kuangtung). 13 ♂, 6 ♀, one dated 17.iv.1936. In Ulmer's description of the species, it is stated that there are no scales on the anterior wings. In every male example in this collection, scales are present but they are only lightly attached and it may be that, in the type, they had become detached. The examples in this collection agree exactly with the figures of the type both in neuration and genitalia.

Goëra fissa Ulmer. Arch. Natury. 91 A. 5:76, figs. 63-65, 1926 (Kuang-

tung). 1 3.

MOLANNIDAE.

Molanneria falcata Ulmer. Deutsch. ent. Z. 1908: 347, figs. 8–12, 1908 (Japan). 2 ♂, 3 ♀.

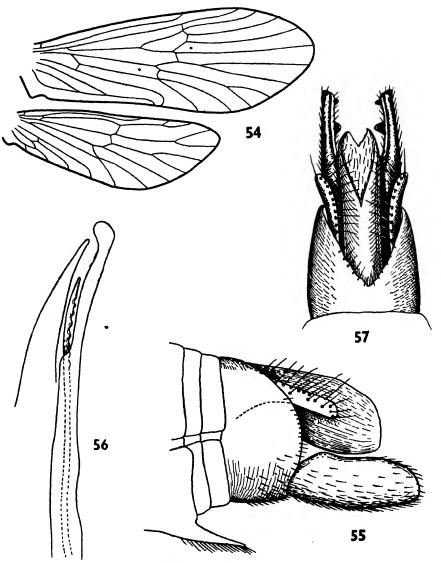
ODONTOCERIDAE.

Psilotreta kwantungensis Ulmer. Arch. Naturg. 91 A. 5: 66-68, figs. 49-52, 1926 (Kuangtung). 1 3:

* Psilotreta ochina sp. n. 1 ♂, 1 \overline{1}.

CALAMOCERATIDAE.

Ascalaphomerus finitimus McLachlan. Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. (3) 1:304, 1862 (N. China). 1 \, \text{\text{\$\chi}}.



Figs. 54-57.—Pseudagapetus chinensis sp. n. 3. 54. wings; 55. genitalia lateral; 56. penis, upper penis-cover and sheaths lateral; 57. genitalia dorsal.

LEPTOCERIDAE.

Triplectides magna Walker. Cat. Neur. Brit. Mus.: 73, 1852 (Van Dieman's Land). 2 ♂, 3 ♀.

* Leptocerus inchinus sp. n. 106 examples of both sexes.

* Leptocerus yangi sp. n. 23,49.

* Leptocerus fooensis sp. n. 2 3, 5 2. One example dated 8.iv.1936.

Leptocerus sinensis Forsslund. Ark. f. Zool. 27 (A) (31): 8-9, fig. 8, 1935. 2 3.

* Oecetis orientalis Martynov. Trav. Inst. Zool. Acad. Sci. URSS. 2:248-249, fig. 46, 1935 (Amur region). 36 examples of both sexes. One dated 6.vi.1936.

HYDROPSYCHIDAE.

* Polymorphanisus ocularis Ulmer. Notes Leyd. Mus. 28:60, fig. 65, 1906 (Java). 1 \, \text{\text{Q}}.

* Amphipsyche proluta McLachlan. Ann. Soc. ent. Belg. 15:70, pl. 2, fig. 7, 1872 (Amur region). 1 3. Dated 30.iv.1938.

Aethaloptera rossica Martynov. Annu. Mus. zool. St. Petersb. 15: 385, figs. 27-30, 1910 (Amur region). 1 3, 1 \, \text{?}.

Macronema fastosum Walker. Cat. Neur. Brit. Mus.: 76, 1852 (Hong Kong). 34 examples of both sexes.

Macronema hospitum McLachlan. Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. (3) 1:307, 1862 (N. China). 2 3, 1 \cdot 2.

Macronema lautum McLachlan. Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. (3) 1:308, 1862 (Hong Kong). 2 \(\text{Q}\). The examples in Mr. Yang's collection are rather smaller than the type series, and the markings are not exactly similar. It may be that a distinct species is involved.

* Hydropsyche simulata sp. n. 1 3, 7 \,\text{2}.
* Cheumatopsyche banksi sp. n. 7 \,\text{3}, 9 \,\text{2}.

* Cheumatopsyche dubitans sp. n. 13, 52. One dated 27.iv.1938.

Cheumatopsyche chinensis Ulmer. Deuts. ent. Z. 1915: 47-48, figs. 14-15, 1915 (Pekin). 2 3, 1 \, \text{?}.

Diplectrona melli Ulmer. Pekin nat. Hist. Bull. 7: 48-49, figs. 15-16, 1932-33 (Yunnan). 3 Q. In the absence of a 3, this determination must be considered a little doubtful.

POLYCENTROPIDAE.

Dipseudopsis stellata McLachlan. Tijdschr. Ent. 18:16, pl. 2, fig. 11, 1875 (Shanghai). 1 3.

Hyalopsyche pilosa Navás. Ent. Mag. Japan 11:91, fig. 5, 1916 (China).

349 examples, mostly female.

* Pseudoneureclipsis sp. 1 \Q. Species not determined. * Plectroonemia potchina sp. n. 1 \(\frac{1}{3}\), 2 \Q. One example dated 17.iv.1936.

PSYCHOMYIDAE.

- * Ecnomus foochowensis sp. n. 60 examples of both sexes.
- * Tinodes chinchina sp. n. 2 3, 1 9.

PHILOPOTAMIDAE.

* Chimarrha cachina sp. n. 13, 12.

Stenopsyche griseipennis McLachlan. Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. (3) 5: 265, pl. 17, fig. 5, pl. 19, figs. 17–18, 1866 (E. India). 1 ♂, 7 ♀.

Stenopsyche angustata Martynov. Proc. zool. Soc. Lond. 1930: 74, figs. 15-16, 1930 (W. China). 1 3, 5 \, \text{?}.

* Stenopsyche banksi sp. n. 1 3.

RHYACOPHILIDAE.

Rhyacophila sp. Undeterminable, abdomen wanting.

- * Rhyacophila anatina Morton. Trans. ent. Soc. Lond. 1900: 6, pl. 1, figs. 17-18, 1900 (India). 1 3. There is a slight difference in the shape of the lateral lobes of the dorsal plate and also in the shape of the terminal joint of the inferior appendage, from the figures of the type. I consider these differences scarcely sufficient to indicate a distinct species.
- * Pseudagapetus chinensis sp. n. 1 3, 1 2.
 - * New to the Chinese fauna.

ON THE DEVELOPMENT AND HOMOLOGIES OF THE GENITALIA AND THEIR DUCTS IN HYMENOPTERA

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WITH TWENTY-FIVE TEXT-FIGURES.

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INTRODUCTION.

WHILE in recent years the development and homologies of the genitalia and the efferent genital ducts in various insects have attracted the attention of a number of investigators, the order Hymenoptera has not been given the study its morphological interest merits. Earlier authors, Eaton (1866, 1868), Ganin (1869) and others, demonstrated the primary buds of the genitalia alone. researches of Kraepelin (1873), Dewitz (1875, 1877), Seurat (1899), Michaelis (1900) and Zander (1900, 1903), had thrown much light on the subject and the order Hymenoptera was at that time among the best known. Zander in 1916 added a useful contribution to the literature. In recent years Tiegs (1922), Boulangé (1924) and George (1934, 1935) are the only authors who have gone into the development of the subject. With regard to the female genitalia, the exact situation and nature of the primary buds of these organs have been a matter of considerable difficulty. The correct interpretation of the origin and nature of the oviducts, the origin and evolution of the accessory genital organs, such as the spermatheca and accessory glands and the relation of these structures to the genitalia is still a matter of dispute. This study attempts to remove the discrepancies in the literature mentioned above.

The research was undertaken at the suggestion of Dr. A. D. Imms, F.R.S., whom I cannot sufficiently thank for his guidance and encouragement throughout the investigation. I am indebted also to Dr. W. H. Thorpe for his kind advice, and the award of a Government of India Scholarship is gratefully

acknowledged.

MATERIAL AND TECHNIQUE.

All the material for this work was secured from the Cambridge district. The dissections were carried out with the aid of a binocular microscope and then stained with borax carmine. The fixatives employed were picro-chloracetic acid, aqueous Bouin's fluid and Petrunkewitsch fluid, and the material was embedded in paraffin wax of m.p. 52–56° C. It was necessary in the case of the bee and wasp larvae to dissect out most of the fat body in order to obtain a complete permeation with the fixatives, etc. Air bubbles were removed by means of a vacuum pump. Sections were stained either in Heidenhain's iron-haematoxylin and counter-stained in orange G, or with Delafield's haematoxylin and counter-stained in eosin, or both. Cuticular preparations were first treated with 5% KOH solution and then stained in carbol-fuchsin and borax carmine. The illustrations were made with the assistance of a camera lucida.

PART I.—THE FEMALE

FEMALE ORGANS.

Nematus ribesii.

Adult organs.

The two ovaries fill the greater part of the body cavity; each is composed of several ovarioles firmly attached at their apices by their terminal filaments. The oviducts run posteriorly and ventrally, and in the region of the seventh segment open into a short oviduct. The spermatheca is conical and has a narrow duct which opens into the common oviduct. The counterpart of the associated tubular glandular parts (or receptacular glands) are absent in this

species. Posterior to the opening of the spermatheca the common oviduct continues as the vagina which opens by a wide mouth externally and in front of the anterior valves of the ovipositor. The accessory gland consists of a pair of branched organs which open by a short duct into a non-muscular vesicular part; from the latter a short duct opens at the base of the inner valves of the ovipositor.

Development of genitalia.

In the first-instar larva the buds of the genitalia are absent, and it is not until the third instar that a pair of ectodermal thickenings (imaginal buds) are evident on the ventral surface of each of the eighth and ninth segments. Those of the eighth segment are more widely separated from each other than those of the following segment (fig. 1, A and B). At a later larval stage these grow in size and it is in the final-instar larva that they become surrounded by peri-

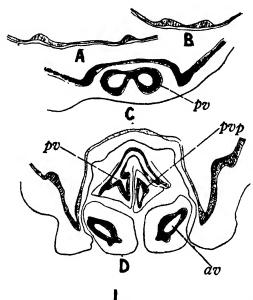


Fig. 1.—Nematus. A. T.S. passing through the 9th segment of a third-instar larva to show the buds on the 9th segment; B. the same of the 8th segment to show the buds of the ventral valves; C. T.S. of an early pupa to show the basal fusion of the posterior valves; D. the same to show the attachment of the posteriorly directed processes of the posterior valves.

podial cavities (vide Imms, 1938: 201). In a larva which is about to spin its cocoon each bud of the ninth segment divides by a groove, which starts from the posterior border, into an inner and an outer pair. During the early prepupal stage the inner valves fuse along their basal dorsal margin (fig. 1, C). Each outer and inner valve of one side becomes separated more widely by the interception of the ninth sternum. This separation proceeds and the separating area after sclerotisation becomes the oblong plate. In the middle and late prepupal stages the fusion of the inner valves progresses posteriorly and the adult condition is attained in the early pupal stage. Each of the inner valves gives out ventrally from its anterior end a posteriorly directed process (fig. 1, D, pvp).

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The pupal instar shows that these parts grow anteriorly, the saws as well as their supports diverge into arms, and the structures which have acquired an appendicular nature become sclerotised and take the position seen in the adult. The development of the genitalia was followed from the earliest larval instar up to the full-grown larva in Cephus pygmaeus and Phymatocera aterrima and these showed complete agreement with that of Nematus.

Efferent system.

The ovaries lie lateral to the gut in the fifth segment in the first-instar larva. The oviducts extend as fine thread-like solid cords and terminate in dilatations which rest on the ventral and lateral parts of the seventh segment (vide Cephus, fig. 2, A, ta'). During the later larval instars these ends grow and during the

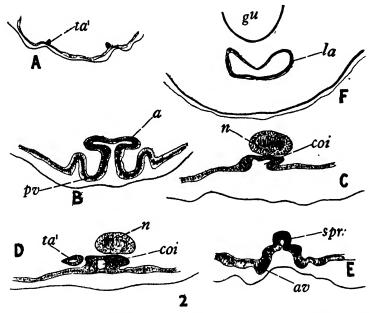


Fig. 2.—A. T.S. of a first-instar larva of Cephus to show the terminal ampullae of the oviducts; B-F. Nematus, B. T.S. of a late full-grown larva to show the development of the female accessory gland; C. and D. Serial T.S. of an early prepupa showing the development of the common oviduct; E. T.S. of a prepupa showing the development of the spermatheca; F. T.S. of an early pupa to show the anterior arms of the common oviduct.

final larval stadium they acquire a lumen. It is during a very late larval stage that the rudiment of the accessory gland arises from the bases of the inner valves as a median invagination, the upper flattened end of which gives out laterally a pair of arm-like projections (fig. 2, B, ag') which are the rudiments of the associated glands. The anterior valves during this stage move towards the mid-ventral line and enclose a groove—that of the spermatheca.

In the early prepupa the arms of the rudimentary accessory gland begin to grow, the spermathecal groove deepens and the rudiment of the common oviduct arises as a median invagination. Its ventral lips meet anteriorly, from the hind margin of the seventh sternum (fig. 2, C, coi), and the terminal ampullae

lie associated with this blind end (fig. 2, \tilde{D} , ta').

The intervening wall between the rudiments of the spermatheca and of the common oviduct begins to shrink and the oviducts acquire a lumen.

In the middle prepupa the basal part of the accessory gland becomes globular; its apical end, by which it communicates with the accessory glands, narrows to form a short duct, and the anterior arms begin to branch. The spermathecal groove becomes conical (fig. 2, E, spr). The entire body wall between the rudiments of the spermatheca and the common oviduct is joined by a groove, the upper wall of which shrinks.

In the late prepupa the accessory gland increases in size. The rudiments of the common oviduct and of the spermatheca become contiguous by the further shrinking and deepening of their intervening wall. The common

oviduct acquires a chitinous internal lining.

During the pupal instar the vesicle of the accessory gland enlarges considerably. The common oviduct and the vagina, which is the region posterior to the opening of the spermathecal duct, are lined by an outer muscular coat. Anteriorly the common oviduct becomes constricted into two lateral arms into which open the terminal ampullae of their respective sides (fig. 2, F, la). Further development in this instar results in the growth and differentiation of the organs which are already completed before the pupal instar is attained.

Observations were made on the efferent genital ducts of Cephus and Phymatocera, from the earliest larval instar up to the full-grown larva. They are in

essential agreement with those made on Nematus.

Polemon liparae.

Adult organs (fig. 3).

The internal reproductive organs of P. liparae consist of a pair of ovaries (ov) lying ventro-lateral to the gut in the fourth to sixth segments. Each ovary is composed of seven to ten ovarioles which adhere closely to one another in situ, and the ova fill up a considerable part of the abdominal cavity. The oviducts (0) are short and thick and unite to form a muscular common oviduct. The spermatheca (sp) is composed of an apical tubular part and a vesicular basal part from which a duct opens into the roof of the common oviduct. The continuation posterior to the opening of the spermatheca is the vagina (v), which opens to the exterior in front of the anterior valves. The acid gland (pg) is a greatly branched structure which fills a considerable portion of the posterior part of the abdominal cavity. The poison sac (ps) is cone-shaped and its short narrow duct opens at the base of the sheaths. Adults of the Braconid Alysia manducator Panzer were dissected and the acid gland in them also showed a similar structure, which has been observed also by Seurat (1899) in the Braconid Doryctes gallicus. The alkaline gland is a small club-shaped structure which lies hidden under the greatly branched acid gland and opens a little anterior to its opening. In fig. 3, therefore, the alkaline gland has not been sketched.

Development of genitalia.

Young larvae of less than 1 mm. and 1.2 mm. length were examined. In these the buds of the genitalia were not discernible. They first appear in larvae 1.6 mm. long, and are clearly seen in larvae 2.4 mm. long. Those on the eighth segment are situated 0.03 mm. apart, while those on the ninth segment are 0.02 mm. apart. A larva of 8 mm. shows them still better developed. The pair on the ninth segment in a full-grown larva divides into an inner and an outer pair by a longitudinal split, as in *Nemeritis* (vide fig. 5, A). In the pre-

pupal instar the inner pair on the ninth segment fuses, and subsequent development shows that the pair on the eighth sternum become the stylets or anterior valves of the ovipositor, the inner fused pair their sheaths, and the outer pair the palp-like lateral valves.

Efferent system.

Larvae less than 1 mm. long show the ovaries (ov) situated laterally to the gut in the seventh segment and the terminal filaments of one ovary are connected to those of the opposite side above the gut. The oviducts (o) are short

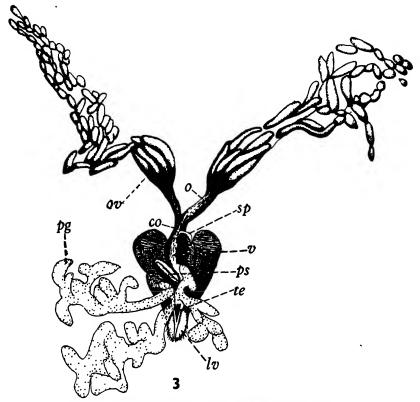


Fig. 3.—Polemon liparae. Adult organs, dorsal view.

and thin and bend downwards to terminate in ampullae (ta') on the ventrolateral surface of the seventh segment (fig. 4, A). The walls of the ampullae are composed of large cells and their inside appears to be hollow. Larvae of 1.2 mm. and 1.6 mm. showed more or less the same condition except that the ampullae had increased in size. A larva 2.4 mm. long showed localised thickening of the ectoderm on which the terminal ampullae were lodged. These thickenings are more widely separated than those of the following segment. The subsequent development up to the full-grown larva shows that the oviducts thicken in diameter and the buds on the seventh segment shift more towards the median plane. In a full-grown larva the rudiment of the acid gland arises as a median globular invagination from between the bases of the inner valves. Apically this gives out four diverticulae—two from its anterior and two from its posterior end. These form the main rami of the future greatly branched gland. The vesicular part becomes the poison sac and the basal portion narrows to form the poison duct. The anterior valves move near each other in the mid-ventral line.

In the full-grown larva the rudiment of the alkaline gland arises as a median invagination a little anterior to that of the acid gland. At the bases of the anterior valves is a small invagination which is the rudimentary spermatheca. A fourth median invagination arises from the ectoderm lying between the

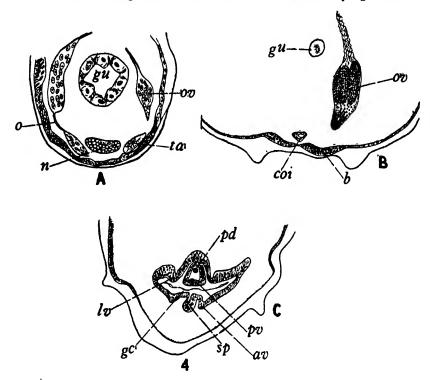


Fig. 4.—Polemon. A. T.S. of a larva less than 1 mm. long to show the disposition of the ovaries and their ducts; B. T.S. of a full-grown larva showing the rudiment of the common oviduct; C. T.S. of an early pupa to show the position of the ventral valves.

imaginal discs of the seventh segment and is the rudiment of the common oviduct (fig. 4, B, coi).

In the prepupa the entire region of ectoderm between the invagination of the common oviduct and that of the spermatheca becomes invaginated so that the two invaginations are carried deeply inwards. The intervening wall between these two invaginations begins to shrink. No trace of the imaginal buds of the seventh segment is evident. In a late prepupa and early pupa the appendages of the genitalia are also invaginated so that the articulations of the anterior valves of the ovipositor come to lie on the ventral wall of the genital chamber (fig. 4, C, av). The acid gland becomes greatly branched. The alkaline gland is better developed and the rudiment of the spermatheca becomes differentiated into an apical portion, which represents the gland, and a vesicular basal portion

or the spermatheca proper. The intervening wall between the common oviduct and the spermatheca shrinks further and the oviducts establish connection with the common oviduct. During subsequent development the openings of the common oviduct and the spermatheca become contiguous, as in *Nematus* or *Vespula*. A further deepening of the genital chamber and growth and differentiation of the other structures occur until the adult condition is reached.

Nemeritis canescens.

Adult organs.

The reproductive organs of Nemeritis have been described and figured by Krieger (1927). The ovaries, which lie in the fourth to sixth segments, are each composed of 10–12 ovarioles. The anterior end of each oviduct is dilated, while the posterior ends join into a common oviduct. The common oviduct dilates posteriorly into a vagina which opens posterior to the articulation of the stylets. The spermatheca is absent in the adult. There are two tubular acid glands which open by a duct into a bag-like poison sac. The poison sac, in its turn, opens by a narrow duct at the base of the posterior valves of the ovipositor. The alkaline gland is a tubular structure which opens a little anterior to the aperture of the acid gland.

Development of genitalia.

In the first-instar larva the rudiments of the genitalia are not discernible. They are present in the second-instar larva, on the ventral surface of each of the eighth and ninth segments as a pair of ectodermal thickenings. These imaginal buds lie close to each other. In the fourth and fifth instars the buds are as in the preceding instar except that they have grown considerably. During the fifth instar they become sunk in peripodial cavities. Those on the ninth segment divide by a longitudinal vertical division into an outer and an inner pair (vide fig. 5, A). The buds of the inner pair fuse at a late larval stage. The subsequent development proceeding during the prepupal and pupal instars involves the differentiation and growth of these three pairs. Those of the eighth segment become the stylets, the fused pair on the ninth become their sheath while the outer pair on the ninth become the palp-like lateral valves. The anterior diverging arms of the stylets and their sheath are the elongations of these structures occurring during the pupal instar.

Efferent system.

In the first-instar larva the ovaries lie dorso-lateral to the proctodaeum in the ninth segment. The oviduets are extremely fine cords and extend anteriorly from the ovaries but are soon lost in the mesenchyme and fat cells in the body cavity.

In the second instar the ectoderm on the ventral surface of the seventh segment, in the situation of the future imaginal discs, shows a slight thickening. The ovaries are still located in the ninth segment and their terminal filaments meet above the proctodaeum. The oviducts extend anteriorly in a ventral direction as far as the thickenings on the seventh sternum. There are no definite terminal ampullae present, the anterior ends of the oviducts being in connection with mesenchyme present on the thickenings of the ectoderm. In the third and fourth instars the loose cells of the mesenchyme, in which the oviducts terminate, take a more regular and rounded form. In the early fifth instar the terminal ampullae are clearly discernible and each has a distinct

lumen. The imaginal discs are better developed, but they are considerably smaller, and also more widely separated from each other, than those of the following segments. At a more advanced stage a median groove develops from the bases of the posterior valves. This is the rudiment of the acid gland (fig. 5, B, pgr). Simultaneously with the above groove a second median groove develops from the bases of the anterior valves and is the rudiment of the spermatheca, the imaginal discs of the seventh sternum being widely separated by a thin intervening ectoderm (fig. 5, C). At a still later stage the rudiment

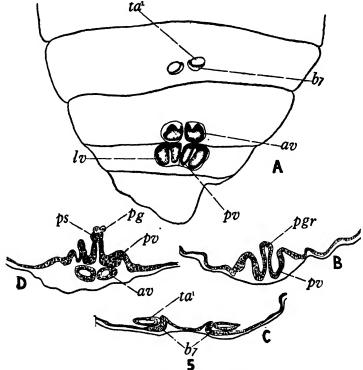


Fig. 5.—Nemeritis. A. Dissection of a full-grown larva showing the division of the pair of buds on the 9th segment (dorsal view); B. T.S. the same showing the development of the acid gland; C. the same showing the intervening ectodermal wall between the buds of the 7th sternum; D. the same showing the developing acid gland.

of the acid gland becomes differentiated into a vesicular part which gives out from its apical anterior end a pair of adjoining papillae. During subsequent development the basal portions of these papillae elongate to form the conducting channel and the papillae grow to form the acid glands, while the vesicular part forms the poison sac (fig. 5, D, ps). A little anterior to the opening of the acid gland another median invagination arises which is the rudiment of the alkaline gland (fig. 6, A, al). The rudiment of the spermatheca at this stage assumes a bag-like shape.

The common oviduct (coi) arises as a median invagination of the ectoderm between the imaginal discs of the seventh segment, the anterior end of which is depressed in the middle to form two short arms (fig. 6, B). The terminal ampullae move and come to lie in association with these arms of the rudi-

mentary common oviduct. The intervening wall between the invaginations of the spermatheca and the common oviduct begins to shrink. The ovipositor begins to move anteriorly so that the organs of the efferent system become anteriorly displaced.

In an early prepupa the lower lips of the invagination of the common oviduct meet and into its lateral arms the ampullae open. The imaginal discs,

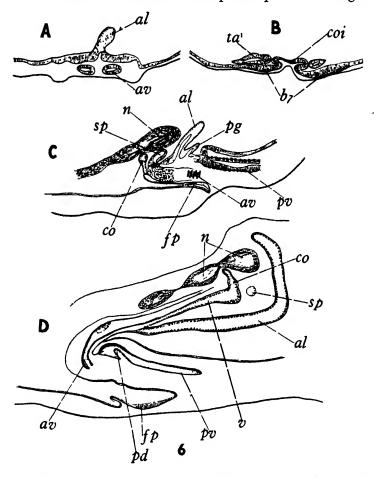


Fig. 6.—Nemeritis. A. T.S. of a late full-grown larva to show the developing alkaline gland; B. the same to show the median invagination of the common oviduet and its relation with the buds on the 7th sternum; C. L.S. of a prepupa showing the disposition of the internal reproductive organs. The gonopore lying anterior to the anterior valves; D. L.S. of a pupa showing the adult condition of the reproductive organs. The gonopore lying posterior to the anterior valves.

which in the previous stage were visible, are no longer distinguishable. The entire wall between the invagination of the spermatheca and that of the common oviduct becomes sunken and there is a further shrinking of the intervening wall so that in the later prepupal stage the two structures become contiguous (fig. 6, C).

The female gonopore still lies posterior to the stylets in the early pupa. It

is in the later pupal stage that there is a rapid forward shifting of the ovipositor so that the anterior attachments of the stylets migrate past the opening of the spermatheca and that of the common oviduct, *i.e.*, the female orifice becomes displaced behind the anterior valves (fig. 6, D). Furthermore, it is during this period that the ovaries change their posterior position and become placed anteriorly as they are found in the imago. There is a further deepening of the genital cavity, and the spermatheca, which is absent in the adult, persists in a rudimentary condition even in the very late pupa.

Pteromalus liparae.

Adult organs (fig. 7).

The internal reproductive organs of *P. liparae* consist of the ovaries (ov) which lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the fifth to sixth segments. Each ovary is

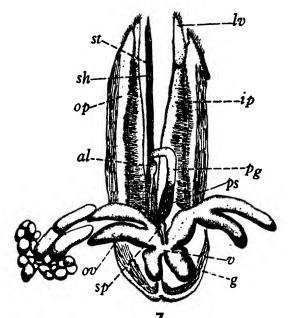


Fig. 7.—Adult organs of Pteromalus liparae (dorsal view).

composed of two ovarioles. The oviducts are short and join in a short common oviduct which dilates into the vagina (v). The vagina opens posterior to the stylets, and a pair of globular sac-like pouches (g), one on either side of it, open into the former. James (1926) found in Harmolita (Isosoma) two pairs of similar pouches which he designated the primary and secondary accessory glands. Grandi (1929) in Blastophaga psenes found only one pair of such structures which he designated "ghiandole accessorie." The spermatheca (sp) consists of the three usual parts, an apical glandular part, the sac-like portion or spermatheca proper, and a sperm duct which opens into the roof of the anterior median part of the common oviduct at its junction with the vagina. The acid gland (pg) consists of an apical glandular part and a basal sac-like portion (ps) (corresponding to the poison sac) from which a duct opens at the base of the posterior valves. It may be pointed out here that James (1926), who

worked on *Harmolita*, stated that the acid gland degenerates in the adult. In *P. liparae* no such degeneration was observed. The alkaline gland (al) opens a little anterior to the opening of the acid gland. It is a tubular structure of about half the size of the acid gland with a thickened apical end.

Development of genitalia.

No trace of the imaginal discs of the genitalia is evident in larvae less than 1 mm. long. A larva 1.4 mm. in length showed on the ventral surface of each

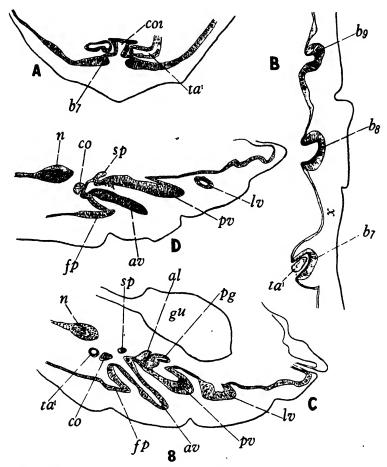


Fig. 8.—Pteromalus. A. T.S. of a full-grown larva showing the developing common oviduct; B. L.S. of the same showing the disposition of the buds on the 7th to 9th sterna; C. and D. Serial L.S. of a late full-grown larva showing the process of approximation of the common oviducal and spermathecal rudiments.

of the eighth and ninth segments a pair of minute ectodermal thickenings. Those of the eighth are as widely separated as those of the following segment. In a larva of 2.4 mm. in length these imaginal discs enlarge but there are no peripodial cavities formed till the larva is full grown. At a late stage in a full-grown larva the buds on the ninth segment become differentiated into an inner and an outer pair. Subsequent development shows that those on the eighth

segment become the stylets, the inner pair on the ninth fuse and become their sheath and the outer pair on the ninth become the palp-like lateral valves.

Efferent system.

The gonads lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the region of the seventh to eighth segments in larvae less than 1 mm. long. They are oval in shape and the sexes can be distinguished by the direction in which the gonoducts point. In the male the vasa deferentia proceed in a posterior direction towards the ventral surface of the ninth segment and in the female the oviducts start in a posterior direction but dip down and curve back, thus becoming directed forwards towards the ventral surface of the seventh segment. The oviducts are without

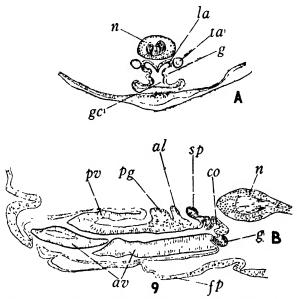


Fig. 9.—Pteromalus. A. T.S. of first-day pupa showing the lateral arms (la) of the common oviduct; B. L.S. of a prepupa showing the condition of the female organs as seen in the adult. The female orifice lying posterior to the ventral valves.

a lumen and I was unable to trace them right up to their termination at this early stage of development. The next stage larva, of 1·4 mm. length, however, showed the terminal ampullae situated on the median and lateral parts of the ventral surface of the seventh segment. A larva 2·4 mm. in length showed the ectoderm beneath the terminal ampullae thickened, and these buds are more widely separated than those of the following segment. Each ampulla is made up of a single layer of elongated cells enclosing a small space.

In the full-grown larva the imaginal discs enlarge and protrude and become surrounded by peripodial cavities while the ampullae acquire a distinct lumen. The rudiment of the acid gland appears as a median groove from the bases of the posterior valves; the spermatheca arises as a similar groove from the bases of the anterior valves; and from the region between the imaginal discs on the seventh segment, a median invagination arises which is the rudiment of the common oviduct (fig. 8, A, coi). The imaginal discs of the seventh segment are present below this groove and quite separate from it (b7). At a later stage

the alkaline gland also appears as a median invagination a little anterior to the invagination of the acid gland. The intervening wall of ectoderm (x in fig. 8, B) shrinks and becomes invaginated; the buds of the seventh segment protrude greatly and become merged with the subgenital plate, as may be seen from figs. 8, B and C; and the rudimentary common oviduct moves anteriorly and establishes connection with the rudiment of the spermatheca (fig. 8, D).

In the prepupal instar the rudiment of the acid gland becomes differentiated into an apical glandular part and a basal vesicular part, and the spermatheca also shows a similar differentiation. From the basal anterior part of the common oviduct arise a pair of pouches, the future accessory glands (fig. 9, A and B, g). A median constriction which starts from the dorsal surface divides the anterior end of the common oviduct into two short ducts with blind anterior ends (la), on which rest the respective terminal ampullae (fig. 9, A). This condition is seen even in the one-day-old pupa. The openings of the spermatheca and that of the common oviduct are displaced further posteriorly owing to the forward shifting of the ovipositor (fig. 9, B). During the early, middle and late pupal stages the organs of the imago already formed grow and undergo histological differentiation, and it is during the later pupal period that the ampullae open into their respective lateral arms of the common oviduct.

Vespula germanica.

Adult organs.

The reproductive organs of the worker are in general similar to those of the queen except that the ovaries and the spermatheca are reduced and the ovarioles filamentous.

The internal reproductive organs consist of a pair of ovaries which are situated lateral to the gut in the fourth to sixth segments. Each ovary is composed of four to six attenuated ovarioles the terminal filaments of which unite with the corresponding structures of the ovary above the gut on the opposite side. From each ovary an oviduct passes back and, in the region of the posterior margin of the sixth segment, dips sharply and joins the other to form a common oviduct which opens into the genital chamber. The spermatheca consists of a globular vesicular sac or spermatheca proper, and a pair of tubular glands and a narrow duct which connects the globular sac with the roof of the common oviduct at its junction with the genital chamber. There is a pair of coiled tubular acid glands opening separately into a conspicuous muscular poison sac which is connected by a narrow duct with the base of the stylet-sheath. The alkaline gland is smaller and its opening is situated a little anterior to that of the poison duct.

Development of the genitalia.

The development of the genitalia agrees closely with that of *Nemeritis* except that when the imaginal discs are discernible the pair on the eighth segment are more distantly situated from each other than those on the hinder segment. I have studied the development of the triangular and the oblong plates and conclude that the former structures represent the remnants of the eighth sternum, and the latter those of the ninth.

Efferent system.

The ovaries in a larva about 2 mm. long lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the region of the fourth and fifth segments. From each ovary extends postero-

laterally a thread-like oviduct without a lumen. In the region of the seventh sternum they dip low and end in hollow terminal ampullae the walls of which are composed of loose cells. These ampullae rest on the imaginal discs of the seventh sternum which are more widely separated from each other than those of the following segments, and are not surrounded by peripodial cavities. Subsequent development, leading to the full-grown larva, shows enlargement of the ampullae and a spreading of the cells that constitute it.

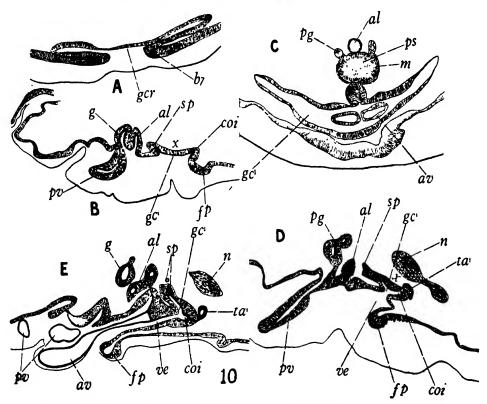


Fig. 10.—Vespula. A. T.S. of a prepupa to show the depression of the genital chamber; B. L.S. of an early prepupa to show the invaginations of the acid gland, alkaline gland, spermatheca and the common oviduct; C. T.S. of a prepupa showing the developing acid gland; D. the same showing the shrinking of the ectoderm (x) between the invaginations of the common oviduct and that of the spermatheca and the formation of the vestibulum; E. L.S. of a late prepupa showing the approximation of the spermatheca and the common oviduct.

In the full-grown larva the rudiment of the acid gland is a median invagination which arises between the bases of the inner valves. The discs of the eighth

segment move in the mid-ventral line.

In the early prepupa the invagination of the acid gland becomes differentiated into an apical glandular part and a basal vesicular part which is the rudiment of the poison sac. A deep depression originates anterior to the terminal ampullae and their associated imaginal discs. This is the rudimentary genital chamber (fig. 10, A, gcr). At a slightly later period the anterior lower lips of this depression meet to form the rudimentary common oviduct. The

ampullae move and come in connection with the common oviduct, and the entire ectodermal wall between the common oviduct and the rudiment of the spermatheca, which arises at this stage as a median invagination from the bases of the anterior valves, becomes sunken (fig. 10, B). The cells of the discs of the seventh segment become spread posteriorly and merge with the sub-

genital plate (fig. 10, B, fp).

In the middle period of the prepupa the oviducts acquire a lumen. of papilla-like outgrowths arise from the anterior end of the globular poison sac (fig. 10, C, pq), which are the rudiments of the poison glands. Mesenchymatous cells cover the surface of the poison sac with a sheath which, in subsequent development, forms its thick muscular coat (m). A little anterior to the invagination of the acid gland arises another median invagination whose apical end curves above the poison sac and points backward. This is the rudiment of the alkaline gland (al). This structure also is covered with a sheath The invagination of the spermatheca becomes of mesenchymatous cells. differentiated into an apical vesicular part, from the apex of which arise a pair of papillae. As in the honey bee, the vesicular part forms the spermatheca proper and the papillae grow to form its associated tubular glands. The genital chamber deepens further and the ectodermal wall (x) intervening between the invaginations of the spermatheca and the rudimentary common oviduct shrinks so that the two structures are approximated more than in the previous stage (fig. 10, D).

In the late prepupa the rudiments of the spermatheca and of the common oviduct approximate at this stage by the further shrinking of their

intervening wall (x), thus becoming contiguous (fig. 10, E).

At a late pupal stage the ampullae open into the common oviduct. There is no displacement of mesodermal oviducts by the ectoderm. Nor is there any formation of the lateral ducts from the anterior end of the common oviduct, as have been shown to be present in some forms previously described.

Prosopis krieschbaumeri.

Adult organs (fig. 11).

The internal reproductive organs of Prosopis consist of a pair of ovaries (ov), each of which is composed of three ovarioles situated in the fifth segment. The terminal filaments of one ovary are united above the gut with those from the ovary of the opposite side. The oviducts (o) join into a short common oviduct (co) in the region of the sixth sternum. The common oviduct posterior to the opening of the spermatheca (sp) continues as the vagina (v) which dilates behind and opens anteriorly to the anterior valves. The spermatheca is composed of three regions: (1) a pair of tubular glands which open into (2) a globular spermathecal sac or spermatheca proper from which (3) a narrow duct emerges and opens at the junction of the common oviduct and the vagina. Similarly the acid gland consists of three regions—a pair of short coiled tubular glands (pg) which join into a duct opening into a non-muscular poison sac, from which a duct leads to open at the base of the stylet-sheath. A little anterior to the opening of the acid gland the alkaline gland (al) opens. This is a comparatively large tubular structure.

Development of genitalia.

The development of the genitalia is similar to that of Vespula.

Efferent system.

The ovaries of a full-grown larva lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the fourth and fifth segments. The oviducts extending from them end in hollow terminal ampullae which rest on the corresponding imaginal discs on the seventh sternum. These discs of the seventh segment are more widely separated from each other than those of the following segment. At a later stage the cells that compose these discs spread and are not such prominent structures as in the previous stage.

In the prepupal instar the acid gland is a median invagination which arises

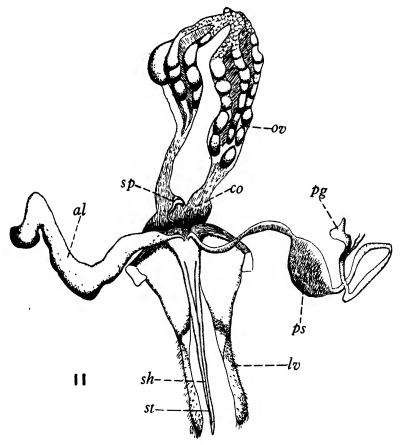


Fig. 11.—Adult organs of Prosopis (dorsal view).

between the bases of the posterior valves. A little anterior to this arises the rudiment of the alkaline gland, also as a median invagination, but this invagination is smaller than that of the acid gland. From the bases of the anterior valves arise the rudiment of the spermatheca as a median invagination with a globular upper part; from the apex of the latter arises a pair of papillae lying close to each other. The common oviduct arises as a median invagination from the posterior margin of the seventh sternum. The entire ectodermal wall, anterior to the rudiment of the spermatheca and posterior to that of the common oviduct, becomes depressed. This is the rudiment of the genital chamber.

The terminal ampullae (ta') move to lie in association with the common oviduct. The discs cannot be traced as separate structures at this stage. At a later stage the intervening ectodermal wall, between the rudiments of the common oviduct and that of the spermatheca, shrinks still further, the genital chamber

or vagina deepens and the oviducts acquire a lumen.

Young, medium and old pupae were examined. During these stages the globular part of the acid gland, which becomes the poison sac, enlarges, and from its apical end buds out a pair of papillae which are united basally. This basal portion grows into a tubular duct while the apical free portions form a pair of short coiled acid glands. The apical papillae of the spermatheca grow and form the spermathecal glands, while the basal sac enlarges to form the spermatheca proper. The alkaline gland undergoes a rapid growth, and by the deepening of the genital chamber and further shrinking of the ectodermal wall between the spermatheca and the common oviduct, the two structures become contiguous. Further development shows growth in these structures until they attain the condition seen in the adult.

Apis mellifica.

Adult organs.

The female reproductive organs of Apis mellifica have been described by Kraepelin (1873), Cheshire (1886), Zander (1916), Bishop (1920), Snodgrass (1925) and others. They resemble those of a Vespula germanica worker in all important respects, but the following differences are worth mentioning.

1. The ovaries suffer greater arrestation of development than in *Vespula*. Hence the ovarioles are not clearly differentiated and because of this the terminal filaments atrophy and the ovaries come to lie lateral to the gut, and

not dorso-lateral as is the case in Vespula.

2. The poison sac is a non-muscular structure and the associated tubular glands join into a common duct which opens into the poison sac. In the case of the wasp the tubular glands open separately and directly into the muscular poison sac.

Development of genitalia.

In a young larva 2.5 mm. in length a pair of ectodermal thickenings lie on the ventral surface of each of the eighth and ninth segments. Those on the eighth segment are more widely separated from each other than those of the following segment. These imaginal discs are surrounded by pocket-like spaces, the "peripodial cavity." In the wasp these cavities do not appear until the larva is fully grown. In larvae 1 cm. long, there is an increase in the size of the discs and they commence to protrude outwards. In full-grown larvae a groove similar to that in the wasp divides each bud on the ninth segment into an inner and an outer pair. In the full-grown larva and early prepupa these three pairs of buds take an appendicular appearance. With subsequent development in the pupal stage the pair on the eighth segment becomes the stylets, the inner pair on the ninth forms their sheaths, and the outer pair on the same segment forms the palp-like lateral valves. I studied the development of the triangular and oblong plates and found that they represent the remnants of the eighth and ninth sterna. Further development leads to growth and sclerotisation of the parts.

Efferent system.

The ovaries of larvae about 2.5 mm. long lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the fifth abdominal segment. From each ovary an oviduct extends in a postero-lateral direction as a very delicate cord without a lumen. These cords terminate in hollow terminal ampullae. Each of the ampullae rests on an imaginal disc present on the seventh sternum. With development the discs and the ampullae grow larger. In full-grown larvae a median invagination, the rudiment of the acid gland, arises between the bases of the posterior valves. The anterior valves move in the median line. In the capped larva the invagination of the acid gland becomes differentiated into an apical tubular part and a globular

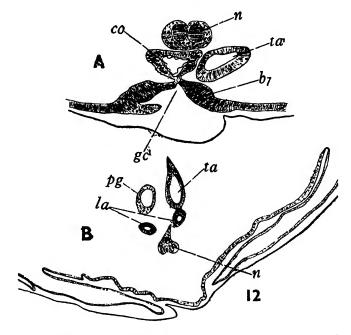


Fig. 12.—.1 pis. A. T.S. of a prepupa to show the developing common oviduet; B. the same showing the lateral arms (la) of the common oviduet.

basal part. A second median invagination arises from between the bases of the anterior valves, on the apex of which are present a pair of papilla-like outgrowths. During subsequent development these papillae become the associated tubular glands of the spermatheca, and the globular sac becomes the spermatheca proper. The common oviduct arises as a broad median groove a little posterior to the imaginal discs of the seventh segment. The terminal ampullae still rest on their respective imaginal discs and their cells spread out posteriorly.

In the early prepupa a little anterior to the invagination of the acid gland another median invagination arises which is the rudiment of the alkaline gland. The body wall between the invagination of the spermatheca and that of the common oviduct becomes sunken. This is the beginning of the genital chamber. The lower lips of the groove of the common oviduct (co) meet anteriorly and the terminal ampullae (ta') come to lie on either side of the apex of this rudimentary oviduct (fig. 12, A), and at the same time a distinct inner chitinous lining

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becomes apparent. The imaginal discs of the seventh segment are no longer visible as separate structures but merge with the subgenital plate which is formed by the seventh sternum. The rudiments of the spermatheca and the common oviduct become more approximated by the shrinking of the intervening ectoderm than in the previous stage. The acid gland is better developed and the oviducts acquire a lumen.

In the late prepupa there is a further shrinkage of the ectoderm which lies between the common oviduct and the spermatheca and a further deepening of the genital chamber. This process progresses further until in the early pupa the two rudiments become contiguous. In the late prepupa the apical part of the acid gland bifurcates at its tip. These branches become the acid gland proper in the adult. The poison sac acquires a chitinous intima. The development of the ovaries and spermatheca is arrested in the prepupal instar and the common oviduct receives a chitinous intima.

Anteriorly, in the early pupa the common oviduct undergoes important changes. A median longitudinal constriction, which starts from the dorsal and ventral surfaces, divides its anterior end into two short lateral ducts (la) with blind anterior ends. Associated with these blind ends are the ampullae of their respective sides (fig. 12, B). At a later stage communication between them is established by the disappearance of the intervening walls. No displacement of the mesodermal oviducts by the ectoderm takes place. The various structures of the efferent system, by further histological differentiation and growth, attain during this instar the form found in the imago.

Conclusions.

In the earliest larvae of the Symphyta (Cephus, Nematus, Phymatocera) buds of the genitalia are absent. They are first evident in the sawflies Nematus and Phymatocera when the larva is in its third instar, and in Polemon, Nemeritis and Pteromalus when the larva is still very young, probably in the second instar. The buds are then situated on the surface but become sunken later in development into hypodermal pockets (peripodial cavities). The higher members of the order, viz. Apis mellifica and Vespula germanica, show that the buds are present in the earliest larval instar and arise as evaginations of the peripodial cavities.

A pair of buds is present on each of the eighth and ninth sterna. Those of the eighth are more widely separated from each other than those of the following segment (Cephus, Nematus, Phymatocera, Polemon, Vespula and Apis), while they are situated equidistant from each other on both segments in Pteromalus and Nemeritis. During subsequent development each bud on the ninth segment divides into an inner and an outer part. With further development those on the eighth become the ventral valves, the inner pair on the ninth fuse and form the sheath or inner valves and the outer pair become the palp-like dorsal valves. The present ontogenetic study shows that there is a variance in the relative position of the imaginal discs, and if this argument is considered alone, then the interpretation of their homology becomes difficult. The reason why the buds on the eighth segment are more widely separated from each other than those of the ninth segment can be explained as follows.

(1) In all the forms where the buds of the ventral valves are more widely separated from each other than those on the ninth segment, it is seen that the first structure to arise is the accessory gland (in the sawfly) or the acid gland (in

Polemon, Vespula and Apis) from the bases of the inner valves. Hence these must necessarily move towards the median line first.

(2) In Nemeritis and Pteromalus where the buds on the two segments are equidistant, it is found that they move in the median line simultaneously and the development of the spermatheca and acid gland occurs at the same time. The former form the bases of the ventral valves and the latter form those of the inner valves. The above two arguments lend support to the previous contention that the development of a structure from the bases of the valves can influence the relative position.

(3) If the posterior region of a larva is examined it is seen that each anterior segment is larger in diameter than the one following. Naturally the buds are proportionately located, thus making the proportionate disparity in their position obvious. Finally if one examines a caterpillar one finds that at least the last pair of abdominal legs are situated nearer each other than any other

pair. Yet all the abdominal legs are considered of the same nature.

From the above argument it seems reasonable to conclude that the relative position of the buds can be influenced by the origin of structures from their bases, and that the distance between each pair of buds on each segment is in proportion to the size of the segment. Therefore, for a correct interpretation of their homology, the mode of origin and subsequent growth and differentiation are the main factors to take into account.

The accessory plates that are associated with the female genitalia, namely the triangular and the oblong plates, have been designated by Snodgrass (1935) the first and second valvifers, homologous to the coxites of the eighth and ninth segments of a Thysanuran. My observations on Vespula and Apis, and those of Zander on Apis, show that they represent remnants of the eighth and ninth sterna. Hence there is a possibility of their representing coxosterna instead of coxites alone.

From the foregoing account the following conclusions may be drawn.

(1) The ventral and inner valves are homologous structures and represent the gonapophyses of the eighth and ninth segments.

(2) The dorsal valves represent laterally drawn-out coxites of the ninth segment having no counterpart on the eighth segment.

Among other insects the recent investigations of Walker (1919) and Snodgrass (1933) on Orthoptera, Metcalfe (1932a) and Rawat (1939) on Hemiptera, George (1928) on Homoptera and Zygoptera are in complete agreement with my conclusions on the nature of the valves of the ovipositor. Observations by Nel (1929) on Locustana, Colemania and Blatella suggest that the ventral and dorsal valves are homologous structures and of the nature of coxites, while the inner valves alone represent gonapophyses of the ninth segment. Nel cited evidence from the work of George (1928) on Agrion (Zygoptera). The latter author described and figured in connection with the ventral valves a pair of median processes, which Nel stated can be regarded as homologous to the inner valves and, therefore, represent gonapophyses of the eighth segment. The fact that George himself neither designated them nor discussed their homology but considered them unique in insects, indicates his doubts about the nature of these structures. In my opinion, if Nel's argument is to be accepted at all, this should not be done until a large number of insects are shown to possess structures similar to those present on the ventral valves of Agrion.

In addition to the above forms in which the development of the buds is traced up to the adult condition, full-grown larvae of the following were

examined: Braconidae—Alysia manducator and Microgaster; IchneuMonidae—Collyria calcitrator; Formicoidea—Acanthomyops niger; Sphecoidea
—Sceliphron sp. All showed one pair of buds on the eighth sternum and two
pairs on the ninth.

It may therefore be concluded that in the Hymenoptera the parts of the ovipositor are derived from the eighth and ninth abdominal segments. This is in complete agreement with the opinion of investigators of other orders of insects which possess an ovipositor.

Efferent genital system.

Kraepelin (1873), Dewitz (1877), James (1928) and Zander (1916) all state that the common oviduct arises from imaginal discs. This contention receives no support from my study and it has been clearly shown that the imaginal discs or buds in question merge with the subgenital plate (seventh sternum) in course of development. Furthermore in the sawflies these buds do not appear. Finally the recent workers Tiegs (1922) and George (1934, 1935) do not record the presence of the buds taking part in the formation of the common oviduct.

Among the other orders of insects Dodson (1935), working with *Brachycentrus* (Trichoptera), is the only author who notes the origin of the anterior region of the common oviduct from ectodermal thickenings present on the seventh abdominal segment. It may be true for the Trichoptera which show other differences as well.

In the Hymenoptera the mesodermal oviducts run from the ovaries up to the seventh abdominal sternum, where they end in swollen ampullae. This is in complete agreement with the earlier investigations of Carrière and Bürger (1897), Zander (1916), George (1935), etc. The common oviduct in all the forms arises as a median invagination from the hind margin of the seventh sternum. In Nematus, Nemeritis, Pteromalus and Apis the apical end of this invagination becomes divided into two short arms into which open the ampullae of their respective sides. In *Polemon, Vespula* and *Prosopis* no such division takes place but the ampullae open directly into the end of the common oviduct. Zander (1916) in Apis mellifica and George (1934, 1935) in Melipona iridipennis and Apis indica also describe a similar differentiation of the anterior end of the common oviduct. Observations by Zander also indicate that the posterior parts of the mesodermal oviducts are replaced in subsequent development by encroachment of ectodermal cells from the common oviduet. George found no ground to agree with Zander's conclusions, nor do Zander's conclusions receive support from the present study. Finally the earlier workers Kraepelin, Seurat, etc., do not mention any such replacement in their accounts.

Spermatheca or receptaculum seminis.

The spermatheca in all the forms arises as a median invagination from the bases of the ventral valves and later becomes differentiated into three regions.

- (a) An apical glandular part.
- (b) A vesicular part or spermatheca proper.
- (c) A conducting duct.

Although Seurat (1899) in *Doryctes* observed the spermatheca arising as an evagination of the vagina, recent studies by Zander (1916) and George (1935) support my conclusions. While they both maintain that this structure arises from the bases of the ventral valves, they, however, differ in their view as to the manner of its origin. Observations by Zander appear to indicate that it

originates from paired rudiments. This argument I do not support. The former author is in complete agreement with me. From what has been said above it may be concluded that in the Hymenoptera the mode of origin and position of the spermatheca seem to be constant, and that the spermatheca arises as a median invagination from the bases of the ventral valves on the eighth sternum.

Approximation of the common oviduct and spermatheca (fig. 13, A-D).

Zander (1916) stated that the common oviduct which arises from the seventh abdominal segment is extended on to the eighth by a groove which

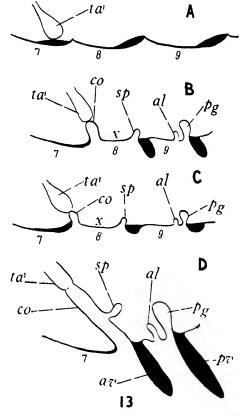


Fig. 13.—A-D. Schematic figures to explain the approximation of the common oviduct and the spermatheca in successive stages of development.

proceeds from this rudiment behind, and a similar groove proceeds anteriorly from the spermatheca. These two grooves meet, their ventral margins fuse, and their anterior connection is lost, thus the female orifice is extended on to the eighth segment. It has been definitely shown that the approximation of these two structures is brought about by the shrinking of the intervening wall and the deepening of the genital chamber and is aided by the telescoping of the hinder segments into the more anterior ones. Christophers (1923) in the mosquito and George (1934) in *Melipona* (Hymenoptera) find that the rudiments

of the spermatheca and the common oviduct become contiguous by a similar process. George in his later publication (1935) failed to note how this is brought about in *Apis indica*. In the account of the former paper George states that the common oviduct arises from the anterior margin of the eighth segment and the spermatheca from behind the ventral valves. Yet his fig. XI, which is a longitudinal section of a fairly advanced prepupa, clearly shows both these structures anterior to the ventral valves. Further, figs. VIII to X (Pl. II) of his later publication strongly uphold the view put forward by me, and it is difficult to understand how George could have failed to describe the process.

Accessory glands.

In the Apocrita two types of accessory glands are generally present—the acid (poison) and the alkaline (gland of Dufour) gland. Investigations by Zander (1916), George (1935) and myself show that the acid gland arises as a median invagination from the bases of the inner valves. A little anterior to this invagination arises the rudiment of the alkaline gland also as a median invagination and these two rudiments retain independent orifices even in the adult. A typical acid gland consists of three portions.

(1) A pair of associated glands (as seen in *Polemon*, *Nemeritis*, *Vespula*, *Prosopis* and *Apis*) or there may be only a single gland (as seen in *Pteromalus*).

(2) A middle vesicular part or the poison sac, which may be muscular as is the case in *Polemon* and *Vespula* but usually non-muscular as in the other forms.

(3) A conducting duct which opens at the base of the inner valves.

In the sawfly *Nematus* only a single accessory gland is present which arises from the base of the inner valves. Therefore this structure from its mode of origin appears to be homologous with the acid gland. In addition to the above structures the glandular pouches in connection with the vagina of *Pteromalus* have already been discussed in the account of the development.

Position of gonopore.

Nematus, Polemon, Vespula, Prosopis and Apis all show that the functional female orifice is situated anterior to the ventral valves. As has been shown in the ontogenetic account, the entire region posterior to the invagination of the common oviduct on the seventh sternum and anterior to the rudiment of the spermatheca is depressed to form the genital chamber. This opening of the genital chamber is designated the vulva by Snodgrass (1933), the openings of the spermatheca and common oviduct being situated inward. The position of the common oviduct orifice has, therefore, shifted posteriorly, for certainly the vulva is more posteriorly placed than would have been the orifice of the common oviduct, if the latter structure had not been drawn inwards. It has been said that in the ichneumon, Nemeritis, and the chalcid, Pteromalus, the functional female opening is placed posterior to the ventral valves. This is incompatible with the general view concerning the posterior shifting of the gonopore, for it is in the higher member of a particular order that it is more posteriorly situated. If this hypothesis is correct then the opening should be located more posteriorly in the Apoidea and Vespoidea than in the Ichneumonoidea or Chalcidoidea. But actually one finds a contrary condition. may be explained as follows.

If the ovipositor of the insects in question (Nemeritis and Pteromalus) be examined it will be observed that it is placed more anteriorly on the abdomenthan the ovipositor of the bee or wasp. In other words, there has been a for-

ward shifting of the ovipositor in these two insects and, probably, this has been responsible for the posterior situation (posterior to the ventral valves) of the opening which probably involves a case of specialisation in these forms.

SUMMARY.

The foregoing study of female Hymenoptera shows that the ventral valves of the ovipositor develop from the eighth segment, the posterior and lateral from the ninth. The ventral and posterior valves are regarded as homologous, and the lateral valves represent the greatly drawn-out coxites of the posterior valves. The mesodermal oviducts end in ampullae on the seventh sternum. The following structures arise as median invaginations: the common oviduct from the hind margin of the seventh sternum, the acid gland from the bases of the posterior valves, the alkaline gland from a region anterior to that of the acid gland, and the spermatheca from the bases of the ventral valves. In Nematus, Nemeritis, Pteromalus and Apis the anterior end of the common oviduct becomes divided into two short ducts into which the oviducts open.

The approximation of the common oviduct and the spermatheca is brought about by the shrinking of the intervening wall and the deepening of the genital chamber, and is aided by the telescoping of the hinder segments into the more anterior ones. Christophers (1923) in the mosquito and George (1924) in Melipona (Hym.) find that these two structures become contiguous by a similar process. The functional female orifice is situated anterior to the ventral valves. In the ichneumon Nemeritis, and the chalcid, Pteromalus, the functional female opening is placed posterior to the ventral valves and involves a case of specialisation in these forms. Observations of Zander (1916) on Hymenoptera and Metcalfe (1933) on Diptera show that during the post-embryonic development the ectodermal cells from the invagination of the common oviduct invade the mesodermal cells of the oviducts and gradually replace them. My investigations show that no such displacement occurs, nor do other authors working on the Hymenoptera support this contention.

PART II.—THE MALE

To the systematist in Entomology, the study of the male genitalia is becoming of ever-increasing importance. Most investigators have confined themselves to the study of the copulatory organs of the adult and based their interpretations on them. This has resulted in adopting a multiplicity of terms, and their homologies are rendered difficult. The nomenclatorial systems of the various hymenopterists have been tabulated recently by Clausen (1938), and I do not feel it necessary to repeat this. Incidental references with regard to the situation of the male genitalia rudiments have been made by Dewitz (1875), Kraepelin (1873), Eastham (1929) and others who hold different views with regard to the origin of these structures. Those authors who have studied these organs in detail regard the rudiment of the copulatory apparatus as a pair of imaginal discs, borne by the ninth abdominal sternum. In this connection, Seurat (1899), Michaelis (1900), Zander (1903) and Boulangé (1924) may be specially mentioned. With regard to the efferent ducts in the male, knowledge is scantier still. Kulagin, Seurat, Michaelis and others consider these organs of ectodermal origin whereas Zander (1916) and Bishop (1920) consider them of mesodermal origin. From the above account it is clear that the study of this problem from the developmental point of view is far from complete and the following is an attempt to put the problem on a sounder basis.

Cephus pygmaeus.

Adult organs (fig. 14, A).

The testes (t) are small plum-shaped structures situated dorso-lateral to the gut in the fifth segment. They are attached to each other along their inner margins. The vasa deferentia (vd) run posteriorly and ventrally a short distance, then dilate into seminal vesicles (vs) which are normally full of sperms. Each vas deferens in its course is joined by a large sac-like accessory gland (ag) and continues posteriorly and joins the one from the opposite side into an ejaculatory duct which opens at the base of the penis.

The genitalia rest on the ninth sternum or hypandrium. They consist of a basal ring (b), a pair of outer claspers (oc), a pair of inner claspers (ic), and a

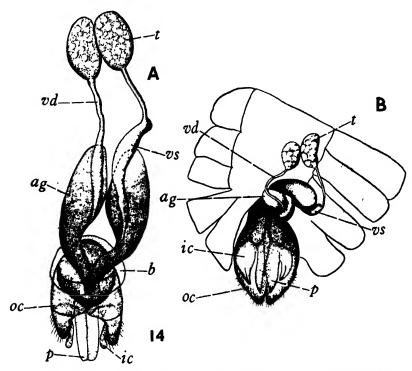


Fig. 14.--Dorsal view of male reproductive organs of A. Cephus pygmaeus; B. Nematus ribesii.

penis (p). The claspers are each differentiated into an apical and a proximal portion. The apical portions of the inner claspers lie at right angles to their basal portions. The apical portions of the outer claspers are furnished with hair. The penis lobes are elongated structures fused along the median line.

Nematus ribesii.

Adult organs (fig. 14, B).

The reproductive organs of *Nematus ribesii* have not been described. There are two oval testes (t) which lie, their inner margins touching, above the gut.

The vasa deferentia (vd) are of a uniform thickness and dilate towards their basal ends into the seminal vesicles (vs). At about this level each vas deferens is joined by an accessory gland (ag). The accessory glands and the seminal vesicles are present in a twisted condition, which is brought about by the inversion of the genitalia; indeed, had it not been for the presence of the gut, all the internal reproductive organs would have changed places.

The genitalia are present in an inverted condition. They consist of a basal

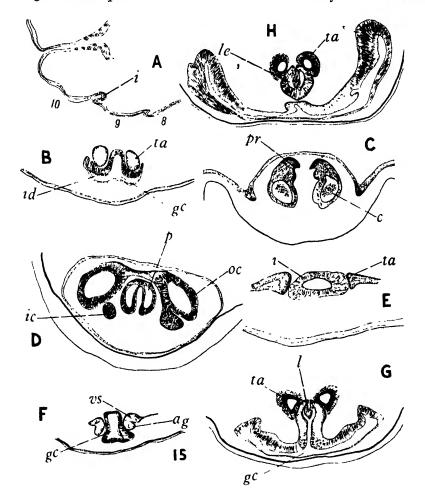


Fig. 15.—A. L.S. first instar larva of Cephus pygmaeus showing the point of origin of the median invagination (i) between the 9th and 10th segments; B. T.S. of full-grown larva of C. pygmaeus showing the buds of the genitalia (id), terminal ampullae (ta) and the genital chamber (gc); C. T.S. of an early prepupa of Nematus ribesii showing the development of the rudiments of the penis (pr); D. T.S. of a late prepupa of N. ribesii showing the development of the claspers; E. T.S. of a first-instar larva of C. pygmaeus showing the relation of the median invagination (i) and the terminal ampullae (ta); F. T.S. of a full-grown larva of C. pygmaeus showing the differentiation of the seminal vesicles (ns) and the accessory glands (ng); G-H. T.S. of successive prepupal instars of N. ribesii showing the deepening of the depression (l) until, fig. H, two separate ducts (le) are formed.

ring by which they are connected to the hypandrium (IXth sternum). On this is borne a pair of outer claspers (oc) each of which is two-jointed. More dorsal to this and posterior to the penis are the inner claspers (ic). Each of these is also a two-jointed structure with its apical part flattened and lying more or less at right angles to the basal part. The penis (p) is a simple structure composed of two lateral plates which are bifid at their tips and produced proximally as apodemes on which the penial muscles are attached. The two plates are connected mostly by a membrane.

The development of the genitalia and the efferent system in Cephus and

Nematus agree closely and the following account is common to both.

Development of genitalia.

The first-instar larva shows a median pocket-like invagination on the ventral side between the ninth and tenth segments (vide fig. 15, A). When the larva is in its penultimate instar a pair of imaginal discs (id) arise from the anterolateral wall of this invagination and hang freely in it (fig. 15, B). In a full-grown larva the discs shift dorsally and enclose a groove between them. The penis rudiments (pr) arise in the early prepupal stage as meso-dorsal evaginations from the basal part of each imaginal disc (fig. 15, C). At a later prepupal stage the inner claspers (ic) arise from the undivided stems of the disc. They arise ventral to the penis rudiments and more posterior to them (fig. 15, D).

In the pupal instar the main parts of the adult genitalia, developed during the previous instar, continue their growth, and sclerotisation sets in. The penis rudiments fuse farther along their dorsal border to form the penis which is free along its posterior half. The ectoderm on the ventral and lateral base of each imaginal disc grows and forms a semicircular ring; this becomes the basal ring. The outer claspers become differentiated into basal and apical parts; similarly the inner claspers.

Efferent system.

In a very young larva the testes lie dorso-laterally to the gut in the fifth segment and the vasa deferentia extend postero-ventrally, ending in hollow terminal ampullae (ta) resting on either side of the invagination of the genitalia (fig. 15, E). The ampullae increase in size during subsequent larval instars and in the full-grown larva they lie in the hollow of their respective imaginal disc (fig. 15, B). At a very late, full-grown, larval stage an anteriorly directed outgrowth arises from each ampulla which is the rudiment of the accessory gland (aq) and the undivided basal swollen end of each becomes the seminal vesicle (vs) (fig. 15, F). The ejaculatory duct arises from the median groove enclosed between the discs. During the prepupal stage the groove of the ejaculatory duct deepens and its dorsal apical wall becomes depressed (fig. 15, G), while the ends of the vasa deferentia move and lie in association with them. In the early pupal stage the apical tongue-like depression (1) of the ejaculatory duct deepens and divides its apical end into two lateral arms (le) into each of which later opens the vas deferens of its side (fig. 15, H). adult structures are completed and further development results in their growth and histological differentiation.

Polemon liparae.

Adult organs (fig. 16).

The testes (t) are large globular structures situated ventro-lateral to the gut between the seventh and eighth segments. Each vas deferens (vd) is a short

and thick tube which runs backwards and dilates into a seminal vesicle (vs) which is joined on its posterior end by the accessory gland (ag) of its side and opens into a median ejaculatory duct (e) opening outside by the genital pore situated at the base of the penis. The accessory glands are large anteriorly twisted structures. The ejaculatory duct, the vasa deferentia and the accessory glands are encased in a muscular lining.

The genitalia (fig. 17, A) consist of a basal ring (b), a pair of outer claspers

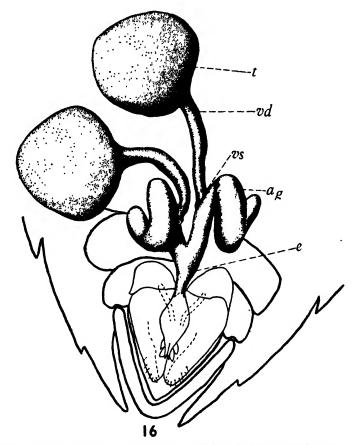


Fig. 16.—Polemon liparae. Reproductive organs of adult male (dorsal view).

(o) furnished with hair, a pair of inner claspers (ic) and a penis (p). The inner claspers are each differentiated into an apical part and a basal part. The penis is a lightly sclerotised structure bifid at its posterior end and gives out anteriorly a pair of sclerotised rod-like processes.

Pteromalus liparae.

Adult organs (fig. 17, B).

The testes (t) are spindle-shaped and are situated dorso-lateral to the gut in the seventh segment. The vasa deferentia (vd) are short ducts which dilate into the seminal vesicles (vs) basally before the pear-shaped accessory glands

(ag) join them, and continue back to join into the ejaculatory duct which opens outside at the tip of the penis. The ejaculatory duct gives out anteriorly a short conical median diverticulum (d). Grandi (1929), in Blastophaga psenes, describes a caecum-like tubular elongation of the ejaculatory duct. This structure in Pteromalus probably stores sperm for a single complete discharge during copulation.

The penis (p) is a cylindrical tubular structure tapering at its apex where the gonopore is situated. Basally it is continuous with the sheath (oc) formed by the two outer claspers in which it can be retracted. Its walls are strength-

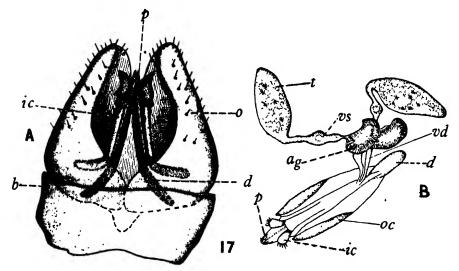


Fig. 17.—A. Genitalia of adult male *Polemon liparae* (dorsal view); B. *Pteromalus liparae*.

Male reproductive organs (dorsal view).

ened basally by sclerotised rods which expand anteriorly to about the same length as the length of the penis. There are six pairs of genital papillae at the apex of the penis. Similar structures have been described by Imms (1919) in Blastothrix. The inner claspers (ic) are lodged on the hinder border of the penis sheath and ventral to it. There are no counterparts of the lateral process at the base of the inner claspers as described by Imms (1919) in Blastothrix. Each inner clasper is crowned with five outwardly directed setae.

Polemon and Pteromalus.

Development of the genitalia.

A young larva about 1 mm. long showed a pair of ectodermal thickenings close to each other on the ventral side posterior to the ninth segment (fig. 18, A). In *Pteromalus* these thickenings first appear when the larva is 2 mm. long. Subsequent development shows these buds enlarge until in the full-grown larva they become sunken anteriorly over the ninth sternum and get lodged in a genital chamber. During the prepupal stage each of the imaginal discs gives out from its base a backwardly directed mesodorsal outgrowth (pr) which is the rudiment of the penis (fig. 18, B). The inner claspers (ic) arise during the pupal stage from the main stem posterior to the penis lobe and ventral to them in position, and the penis lobe fuses (fig. 18, C). The basal ring starts

developing in the prepupal instar as a ventral and lateral ectodermal semicircular thickening from the base of each imaginal disc. The counterpart of the basal ring is not developed in *Pteromalus*, but in this form during the pupal instar the outer claspers gradually surround the penis rudiments, which in turn fuse to form the penis (fig. 18, D) and the penis in course of development thus

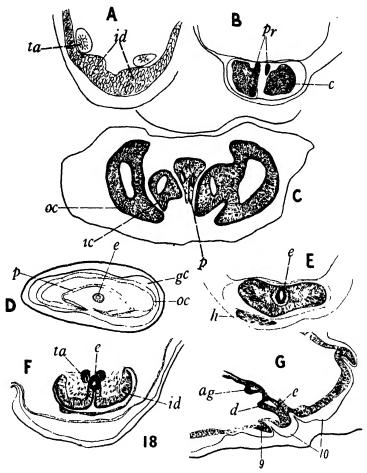


Fig. 18.—A. T.S. of 1-mm.-long larva of Polemon liparae showing developing buds of the genitalia (id); B. T.S. of a prepupa of Polemon liparae showing the development of the rudiments of the penis (pr); C. T.S. of an early pupa of Polemon liparae showing the development of the inner claspers (w) and the fusion of the penis rudiments (p); D. T.S. of pupa of Pteromalus liparae showing the condition of the genitalia as seen in the adult; E. T.S. of a prepupa of Polemon liparae showing the development of the ejaculatory duct (e); F. T.S. of prepupa of Pteromalus liparae showing the development of the ejaculatory duct (e); G. L.S. of a late prepupa of Pteromalus liparae showing the development of the median diverticulum of the ejaculatory duct (d).

becomes encased in the surrounding fused outer claspers (oc) which then form its sheath. In both insects the penis diverges anteriorly into a pair of arm-like processes.

Efferent system.

The testes lie ventro-lateral to the gut in the eighth segment in larvae 1 mm. long. The vasa deferentia are short and thick with no lumen and extend as far back as the anterior margin of the ectoderm thickenings, where they terminate in comparatively large terminal ampullae (ta) (fig. 18, A). Subsequent stages show an increase in the size of the imaginal discs. In the full-grown larva the vasa deferentia acquire a lumen and the imaginal discs basally enclose a groove.

In *Polemon* during the prepupal stage the ventral lips of this groove meet to form a duct which is the rudimentary ejaculatory duct (e) into which open later the terminal ends of the vasa deferentia (fig. 18, E). The accessory glands arise as anteriorly directed outgrowths from the outer lateral parts of the

ampullae as in the case of Cephus or Nematus.

In the pupal instar the accessory glands become more and more curved with progressive development and there is further growth and histological differentiation in all the structures. The accessory glands, the ejaculatory duct and the vasa deferentia all become encased in an outer muscular coat and it is at a very late stage that the basal portions of each vasa deferens, at their union

with the accessory glands, swell to form the seminal vesicles.

In Pteromalus during the early prepupa the ventral lips of the anterior ends of the groove meet, forming a small duct (e), and the ampullae (ta) shift and become associated with this duct (fig. 18, F). From each ampulla buds out an anteriorly directed accessory gland as in the forms described previously. At a later stage the fusion of the penis rudiments results in the transformation of the groove between them into a tube which is in continuation of the apical duct. This entire duct thus forms the ejaculatory duct into the anterior apical end of which open the vasa deferentia. The structure which has been designated the median diverticulum (d) of the ejaculatory duct buds out at this stage from the anterior end of the ejaculatory duct and median to the openings of the vasa deferentia (fig. 18, G).

The pupal stage shows growth and histological differentiation of the various

structures.

Vespula germanica.

Adult organs.

The testes lie enclosed in a single scrotum above the gut in the fifth to sixth segments. The vasa deferentia are short and run posteriorly in the midventral line. In the region of the seventh segment each dilates into a proportionately large seminal vesicle and in the region of the eighth segment each is joined on its outer side by a cylindrical accessory gland. The accessory glands are of about the same dimension as the seminal vesicles. Posteriorly the vasa deferentia continue to open into a median ejaculatory duct in the middle region of the penis which opens to the exterior at the base of its spoon-shaped apical end.

For description of the genitalia see Kluge (1895).

Development of genitalia.

Larvae less than 2 mm. long show on the ventral side of the posterior margin of the ninth segment a median thick-walled invagination (fig. 19, A). This invagination grows in subsequent larval stages until it becomes pouch-like and

is the rudiment of the genital chamber. Side by side the anterior dorsal wall of this chamber gradually thickens until in the full-grown larva the imaginal discs (id) freely hang in it (fig. 19, B). In the more advanced larva the discs become differentiated into two pairs of structures; the inner are the rudiments of the penis (p) and the outer correspond to the undifferentiated claspers (fig. 19, C). The differentiation of the inner claspers (ic) occurs in the prepupal instar (fig. 19, D). They arise more posterior and more ventral in position than the rudiments of the penis. The latter structures fuse along their dorsal

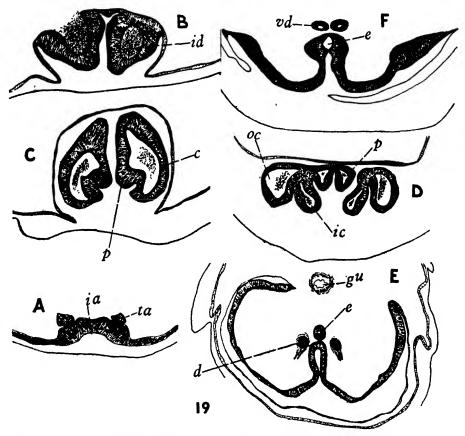


Fig. 19.—A. T.S. of larva (less than 2 mm. long) of Vespula germanica showing the developing median invagination (ia); B. T.S. of a full-grown larva of Vespula showing the fully developed pair of buds of genitalia (id); C. T.S. of a late larva of Vespula to show the development of the penis; D. T.S. of a prepupa of Vespula showing the development of the inner and outer claspers; E. T.S. of an early pupa of Vespula showing the development of the anterior processes (d) of the penis; F. T.S. of a prepupa of Vespula showing the development of the ejaculatory duct (e).

anterior two-thirds. The basal ring also arises at this stage from the base of each disc as a thickening of the ventral and lateral walls which take a semi-circular shape.

During the early pupa the basal ring develops and the penis gives out anteriorly a pair of rod-like processes (fig. 19, E, d). Later pupal stages show growth and sclerotisation of the structures already completed.

Efferent system.

A larva less than 2 mm. long shows the testes situated dorso-lateral to the gut between the fourth and fifth segments. The vasa deferentia extend back in the mid-ventral line as thin solid cords ending in swollen ampullae (ta), one on either side of the anterior margin of the invagination of the genitalia (fig. 19, A). Larvae 5 mm. in length show the ampullae with a distinct lumen. The subsequent larval development shows enlargement of the ampullae and in

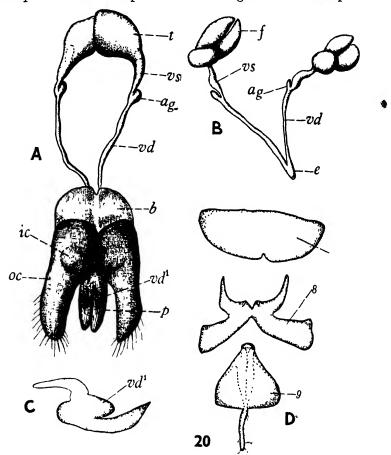


Fig. 20.—A. Adult reproductive organs of Prosopis krieschbaumeri, dorsal view; B. Dissection of a late pupa of Prosopis showing the forward shifting of the accessory glands and the seminal vesicles; C. Lateral view of the penis of adult Prosopis showing the ventral depression (vd'); D. Ventral view of the 7th, 8th and 9th sterna of an adult Prosopis.

the full-grown larva the vasa deferentia acquire a lumen. At a later, full-grown, larval stage (vide fig. 15, F) each ampulla buds out from its outer lateral wall an anteriorly directed outgrowth which is the rudiment of the accessory gland (ug) and the inner portions form the rudiments of the seminal vesicles (vs). During the prepupal stage the fusion of the anterior lower lips of the penis rudiments begins and progresses posteriorly to form a duct. This is the rudiment of the ejaculatory duct (fig. 19, F, e). The vasa deferentia open into the

anterior tip of the ejaculatory duct at a later prepupal stage. Development during the pupal stage results in growth and histological differentiation of the structures so far formed.

Prosopis krieschbaumeri.

Adult organs (fig. 20, A).

The hard parts of the genitalia of various species of *Prosopis* have been figured by Saunders (1882), and Strohl (1908) gives the characteristic features of the genitalia of the family. The study of the internal reproductive organs of the family has been neglected, and those of *Prosopis krieschbaumeri* have not been described. The testes (t) lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the fifth segment. Each consists of three follicles encased in a common scrotum (vide fig. 20, B, f). The two testes are in close contact in the median line. Each vas deferens (vd) immediately dilates into a seminal vesicle (vs), on the posterior outer margin of which there is a bud-like accessory gland (ag). From this region the vasa deferentia continue back with a more or less uniform lumen. They traverse the region of the basal ring and join a short median ejaculatory duct which opens to the exterior on the ventral side of the penis at the base of its ventral depression (vd').

The genitalia consist of a basal ring (b) which is broad and semicircular. On this are borne on the outer side the outer claspers (ac), strongly sclerotised structures furnished with hair longest on the apical end. The inner claspers (ic) are snail-shaped and are borne on the ventral and inner basal margin of the outer claspers, posterior to the attachment of the penis. The posteriorly directed inner ends of the inner claspers are more strongly sclerotised. The penis (fig. 20, C) is a tongue-shaped median structure fused for a short length along its mid region. The posterior half is free and the apices curve downwards. Anteriorly it diverges into a pair of arms to which the penial muscles are attached. On the ventral median part of each half of the penis is a ventrally depressed strongly sclerotised area (vd'). These areas merge with the penis proximally and at their point of merging the ejaculatory duct opens.

The posterior sterna (fig. 20, D).

The hypandrium in the adult is formed by the seventh sternum. It is a semilunar structure curved posteriorly. In the middle of its posterior curved margin is a small notch. The eighth sternum lies retracted on the seventh. It is a slipper-shaped structure with its pointed ends directed anteriorly and its flattened ends directed posteriorly and outwardly. The ninth sternum lies overlapping the previous two sterna. It is a shield-shaped structure with the conical end directed anteriorly. A handle-shaped rod which is furnished with hair projects behind from its ventral margin. This part protrudes under the genitalia, and the presence of hair seems to suggest a sensory rôle.

Development of genitalia.

A very young larva slightly longer than the egg (less than 2 mm.) shows a pair of ectodermal thickenings on the ventral median posterior margin of the ninth segment. In successive stages these buds (imaginal discs) enlarge and become sunken anteriorly in a genital chamber. They are thus shifted on to the ninth sternum. In full-grown larvae they are seen to be attached to the anterior dorsal margin of this chamber in which they hang freely (vide fig. 19, B). At a later larval stage each disc becomes differentiated into two lobes. The inner

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lobes, which are smaller and attached to the inner dorsal wall of the outer, are the rudiments of the penis (p), while the outer pair represent the undifferentiated claspers (c) (vide fig. 19, C). The inner claspers become differentiated during the prepupal stage. They arise from the main stem ventral to the penis rudiments and from a more posterior position (vide figs. 18, C, 19, D). The inner

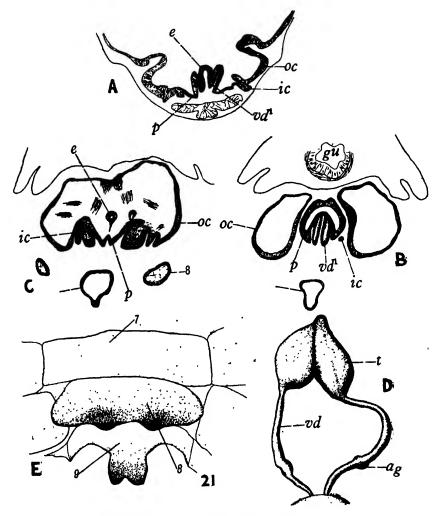


Fig. 21.—A and B. T.S. of a prepupa of *Prosopis* showing the folds of the inner median walls of the penis valves which become the ventral depressions (vd') of the penis valves in the adult; C. T.S. of an early pupa of *Prosopis* showing the developing ejaculatory duct (e); D. Reproductive organs of a middle pupa of *Prosopis* showing the position of the accessory glands, dorsal view; E. Ventral view of the developing sterna (7th, 8th and 9th) of a prepupa of *Prosopis*.

ventral walls of the penis rudiments on each side become folded basally (vd'). These areas after sclerotisation form ventral depressions in the adult while, proximally, the penis rudiments fuse (fig. 21, A, B). The ectoderm on the ventral and lateral base of each disc grows and forms a semicircular ridge. This

is the rudiment of the basal ring. During the pupal instar each half of the penis gives out an anteriorly directed process (as in Vespula, fig. 19, E, d). Growth and sclerotisation of the different structures then take place.

Efferent system.

Young larvae less than 2 mm. in length show the testes lying dorso-lateral to the gut in the fourth segment. The vasa deferentia extend back as thin solid cords towards the mid-ventral line and end in hollow ampullae (ta) which are situated on the posterior border of the imaginal discs (as in fig. 18, A). Subsequent larval development shows enlargement of the ampullae and in full-grown larvae the vasa deferentia begin to acquire a lumen which starts from their posterior ends.

In the prepupal stage the distal portions of the vasa deferentia elongate so that the ampullae are shifted proximally. At this stage the ends of the vasa deferentia are situated at the proximal end of the ventral depression of the penis and the vasa deferentia acquire a lumen.

In the early pupal instar the vasa deferentia open into the anterior tip of the groove which is enclosed by the ventral depressions of the penis. At a later stage the ejaculatory duct (e) is formed by the fusion of the anterior ventral lips of the ventral depressions (fig. 21, C).

In the middle pupal instar the accessory glands (ag) arise from the outer walls of the ampullae as outgrowths, and their inner swollen portions are the rudiments of the seminal vesicles (vide fig. 15, F).

In the late pupal stage the vas deferens and ejaculatory duct acquire an outer muscular lining and there is growth and histological differentiation of the structures.

A point of interest in this type is the gradual forward shifting of the accessory glands and the seminal vesicles. Whereas in the prepupa and early pupa these structures are situated near the ejaculatory duct, they gradually move forward in subsequent development as shown in figs. 21, D, 20, B, until in the adult, fig. 20, A, they are found close to the testes.

The posterior sterna (fig. 21, E).

During the prepupal stage the distal part of the ninth sternum, which has a deeply notched apex, protrudes backwards. Subsequent development during the pupal stage shows that the apical notched portion becomes attenuated and fused to form a hand-like end, and the proximal part gradually acquires a shield-shaped appearance. The eighth sternum gives out in the prepupal instar a pair of widely separated short arms which become in due course its outwardly directed distal arms. The proximal part of the eighth sternum projects out as a pair of arms pointing forwards. Simultaneous with this the posterior sterna begin to telescope, the ninth is moved on to the eighth and the eighth on to the seventh, so that in the adult they are found to overlap and become situated under the genitalia. As the eighth and ninth sterna undergo reduction, the seventh shows progressive growth until finally in the adult it takes the rôle of the male subgenital plate or hypandrium.

Apis mellifica.

Adult organs.

The reproductive organ of the male bee have been described by Michaelis (1900), Zander (1916), Bishop (1920), Snodgrass (1925) and others. A brief outline of the structures is all that is necessary here.

The two testes are small and yellowish structures triangular in shape, consisting of a large number of tubules. Each vas deferens proceeds back as a short coiled duct which dilates in the middle region into a long seminal vesicle and continues posteriorly as a short narrow duct which is joined by a sac-like accessory gland of its side to open into the median ejaculatory duct. According

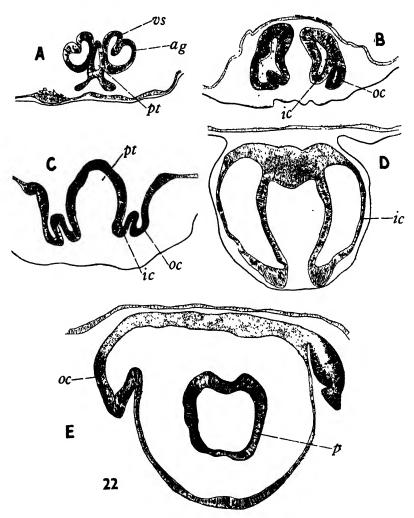


Fig. 22.—A. T.S. of a larva of Apis mellifica showing the development of the penial tube (pt) and the differentiation of the accessory glands (ag) and the seminal vesicles (vs);
B. T.S. of an early prepupa of Apis showing the differentiation of the claspers;
C. To show the same as in B. at a more advanced stage;
D. T.S. of a very late prepupa of Apis showing the inner claspers;
E. T.S. same stage as D. to show the position of the outer claspers.

to Snodgrass (1925), the vasa deferentia open into the dorsal wall of the base of the accessory gland of its side. My investigations, as well as the facts of development, are in complete accord with the above observations. The ejaculatory duct which is a long and narrow non-muscular tube reaches as far

as the anterior end of the penis. The ninth sternum forms the male subgenital plate. It bears on each side a pair of claspers. The outer pair, which is darkly sclerotised and furnished with hair, corresponds to the dorsal plate of Snodgrass (1925). The inner pair, which is large and thin and is situated ventral to the outer, corresponds to the ventral plate of Snodgrass. Between the above

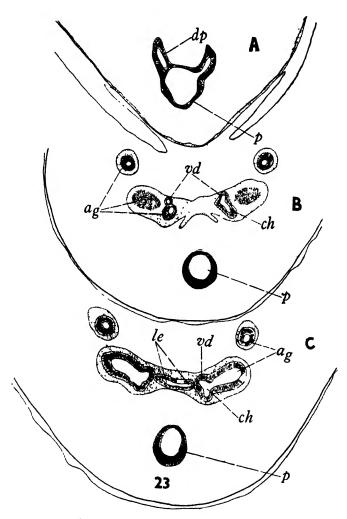


Fig. 23.—A. T.S. of a prepupa of Apis showing the development of the dorsal plates (dp) of the penis; B. T.S. of a late prepupa of Apis showing the relation of the vasa deferentia and the accessory glands; C. Same stage as B. showing the anterior flattened end (le) of the ejaculatory duct, ch — chamber into which open the vasa deferentia and the accessory gland.

two pairs of claspers is situated the inverted penis, a large structure with complexly modified regions. Its proximal part is enlarged into a bulb with two large sclerotised plates on its dorsal aspect. At the base of the bulb is situated a feather-shaped lobe, the ventral region of which carries a series of

transversely sclerotised plates, and posterior to this region are large areas of dorsal and ventral sclerotisations. The basal part of the penis has a thin wall, to the dorsal side of which are attached two large membranous pouches called the pneumophyses.

Development of genitalia.

One-day-old larvae show a median ectodermal invagination on the ventral surface behind the ninth segment. Subsequent larval development shows gradual increase and deepening in the size of this invagination until it becomes pouch-like and is the rudiment of the genital chamber. Simultaneous with this the anterior dorsal wall of this chamber gradually thickens into the two imaginal discs seen in full-grown larvae (6 days old) to hang freely in the genital chamber (vide fig. 19, B). Furthermore at this stage the ventral lips of the groove enclosed between the basal regions of the discs meet, forming a tube (fig. 22, A, pt). Two larval stages were sectioned between this stage and the prepupal instar which showed increase and further deepening of this tube, and its differentiation into a large basal portion and a narrow apical portion. The former becomes the penis proper and the latter becomes the ejaculatory duct.

In the prepupal instar a little posterior to the tube and ventral to it, there arise from the inner wall of each disc the rudiments of the inner claspers (ic) (fig. 22, B). The remaining parts of the discs form the outer claspers (oc). With subsequent development, the tendency of the outer claspers is to move anteriorly and dorsally, so that in a late prepupal stage they become dorsal and anterior to the inner claspers (fig. 22, C, D, E). During the late prepupal stage the proximal part of the penis enlarges to form the bulb, which gives out a pair of hollow outgrowths (dp) from its dorsal wall (fig. 23, A). These are the rudiments of the dorsal plates of the bulb of the penis. The dorsal wall of the penis posterior to the bulb gives out a conical outgrowth which is the rudiment of the feather-shaped lobe (double pinnate lobe of Snodgrass, 1925). The wall of the penis ventral to this lobe becomes transversely folded internally, and these folds become the transverse plates.

In the early pupal instar from the base of the penis dorso-lateral in position appear two papilla-like outgrowths, one on either side, which become the

pneumophyses.

In the later stages of the pupal instar there is growth and histological differentiation in all the structures so far formed, and sclerotisation of the claspers, the dorsal plates of the bulb, the transversely striated plates and the dorsal and ventral regions posterior to it.

Efferent system.

In one-day-old larvae the testes lie dorso-lateral to the gut in the fourth to sixth segments. The vasa deferentia are thin solid cords which extend back as far as the anterior margin of the rudimentary genital chamber, where they end in hollow ampullae. With further larval development they grow in thickness. In a full-grown larva each ampulla gives out an anteriorly directed outgrowth (vide sawfly, fig. 15, F), which becomes the accessory gland (ag), while the mesial part becomes the seminal vesicle (vs). The anterior narrow end of the penial tube forms the ejaculatory duct. Its origin has already been described in the account of the genitalia. The later full-grown larval stages show the vasa deferentia acquiring a lumen which starts from the basal end and progresses anteriorly.

In the prepupal stage the penis and the ejaculatory duct increase in size and in older larvae show an extraordinary growth. The vas deferens, the accessory glands and the seminal vesicles become surrounded by muscular tissue, and the region of the vas deferens into which the accessory gland of its side joins, enlarges into a small chamber (fig. 23, B, ch). The apical end of the

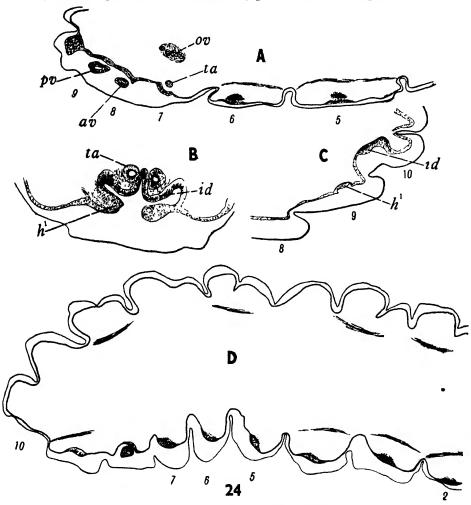


Fig. 24.—A. L.S. of a full-grown female larva of *Polemon liparae* to show the buds on the 5th to 9th abdominal segments; B. T.S. of a late larva of *Polemon liparae* showing the buds of the genitalia and also the additional pair of buds (h') which disappear in development; C. L.S. of a late full-grown larva of *Pteromalus liparae* as in B.; D. L.S. of a full-grown female larva of *Prosopis* to show the buds on the 2nd to the 9th abdominal segments.

ejaculatory duct diverges into a pair of lateral arms, the apical blind end of each of which lies in close contact with the chamber of its side (fig. 23, C, le).

In the pupal stage the ejaculatory duct and the penis acquire an internal chitinous lining, but like the vasa deferentia, accessory glands and the seminal vesicles, they are never encased by muscles. Very advanced pupae were

examined and they also did not show connection between the terminal chamber (ch) and the ectodermal parts of the ejaculatory duct. Observations of Bishop (1920) show that a communication between these two structures is established prior to copulation.

THE PROBABLE ABDOMINAL APPENDAGES.

In recent years the presence of a polypod instar in the development of the parasitic Hymenoptera has been shown to occur in FIGITIDAE by James, in Ibalia by Chrystal and in Phaenoserphus by Eastham (vide Imms, 1937: 58). My observations on Polemon liparae and Pteromalus liparae appear to indicate that in the development of these insects a polypod stage is passed. In fullgrown larvae of these forms, on the verge of entering the prepupal stage, there appears on each abdominal sternum a pair of ectodermal thickenings. As my work was on the genitalia, only the posterior region of the abdomen was sectioned, but as far as the fifth abdominal segment these thickenings were detected (fig. 24, A). Each thickening had a collection of mesenchymatous cells above it. They were found in both the sexes and they appear at a particular period of development and are short-lived, soon disappearing with the onset of the prepupal stage. The buds of the ovipositor appear to be of a similar nature, for in the female no additional thickenings were present on the eighth and ninth segments besides those of the ovipositor. The thickenings on the seventh sternum in the female persist till a later stage in development and also appear before those of the more anterior segments. This is perhaps due to the response of the underlying cells to the terminal ampullae resting on them.

In the male, these thickenings have been located from the fifth to the ninth abdominal segments. Those of the ninth segment of Polemon are large and beak-like (fig. 24, B, h') and those of Pteromalus (fig. 24, C, h') are of the same size as the more anterior ones. These buds on the ninth segment in the males I regard as the counterparts of the subgenital plates of Pruthi (1924). These thickenings in both the sexes are more widely separated from each other than those of the genitalia.

In addition to the above two forms, full-grown larvae of *Prosopis kriesch-baumeri* showed similar thickenings on the second to ninth abdominal segments (fig. 24, D). I could get this stage only in the female. Those of the eighth and ninth segments develop into the ovipositor; the rest disappear with the onset of the prepupal instar. The present observations are a preliminary account of the problem and a more complete account is left to the future.

Conclusions.

The account of the development of the genitalia of Cephus, Nematus, Polemon, Pteromalus, Vespula, Prosopis and Apis shows that these structures arise as a pair of imaginal discs ("Primitivzapfen" of Zander) surrounded by a depression called the genital chamber or genital pocket. In Cephus, Nematus, Vespula and Apis the genital chamber develops between the ninth and tenth sterna prior to the development of the imaginal discs and the discs arise later from its anterior and dorsal inner wall. In the other forms Polemon, Pteromalus and Prosopis the discs are evident first but later become sunken in the genital chamber which arises by the depression of the surrounding wall.

The imaginal discs grow in subsequent larval instars until in the full-grown larva or prepupa each becomes differentiated into a small basal and median portion and a larger lateral portion (figs. 15, C, 18, B). In Apis mellifica it is

seen that instead of the differentiation of the single pair into two pairs, a median tube arises from the bases of the imaginal discs (fig. 22, A). This tube has been designated the "Penial tube" (pt). During the prepupal instar a second outgrowth develops on the inner side of each imaginal disc. This is situated anteriorly and more ventrally in the first pair and represents the rudimentary inner claspers, as seen in figs. 15, D, 18, C, 22, B. The first pair of outgrowths fuse by their median walls and are the rudiments of the penis. The basal ring begins to develop during the prepupal stage after the differentiation of the three pairs of structures. The ectoderm on the lateral and ventral basal regions of each imaginal disc thickens and forms a sort of semicircular ridge. reaches completion in the pupal instar and forms the basal ring. This has been observed to take place in Nematus, Polemon, Vespula and Prosopis. malus and Apis the differentiation of the basal ring does not occur. Zander (1903) is the only previous author to investigate the development of the basal ring, and his observations on Vespula germanica are in complete agreement with mine. The outer claspers may become differentiated into apical and basal parts as in Cephus and Nematus or no such differentiation may occur, as in Polemon, Vespula and Apis. In Pteromalus they spread round the penis and form an encasing sheath for it. Similarly the inner claspers may become divided into basal and apical parts in Cephus, Nematus and Polemon while not in the rest. The penis becomes tubular in Apis, but in Nematus, Cephus, Polemon, Vespula and Prosopis it gives out a pair of anteriorly directed processes designated "anterior processes of the penis." In Prosopis the median ventral wall of each penis valve becomes folded. These folds (figs. 20, C; 21, A, B, vd') later become sclerotised, and have been called "ventral depressions of the penis valves" in the present study.

In *Polemon* and in *Pteromalus* it is seen that a pair of buds arise in the middle region of the ninth sternum. These are more widely separated from each other than the imaginal discs of the genitalia. These buds are evident only in grown larvae on the verge of entering the prepupal stage. They are short-lived and atrophy in the prepupal instar (fig. 24, B, C). I am of the opinion that in *Prosopis* the corresponding structures to these are not present, or, if they are, then the elongations of the ninth sternum which form the handle-like posterior end of the sternum in the adult are their counterparts (fig. 21, E.).

The above brief review of the present study shows that the complicated genitalia of adult Hymenoptera can be traced to a single pair of structures.

Peck (1937), Michaelis and Zander agree with me that the rudiments of the genitalia arise from the hind margin of the ninth sternum. Boulangé and others who made observations on full-grown larvae found the rudiments of the genitalia situated on the ninth sternum. It has been shown in the present study that this does happen with the shifting forwards of the genital chamber. Observations of Michaelis, Zander and Boulangé show that the rudiments of the inner claspers are the first structures to arise from the imaginal discs and they are followed by those of the penis valves. It has been shown definitely that they develop in the opposite sequence, and the process is shown diagrammatically in fig. 25, A-C. Hence my investigations are in agreement with those of the above authors in so far as these structures arise from the same pair of buds, but I disagree in the order in which they arise.

I cannot suggest why previous investigators should have overlooked this point, but it has been shown definitely that even in Apis the first structure to arise from the imaginal discs is the penial tube and not the inner claspers as alleged by Michaelis and Zander working with this insect.

Recently Snodgrass (1935) has divided the male genital parts of pterygote insects into phallic (inner) and periphallic (outer) structures. The phallic organs consist of the median intromittent organ of the ninth segment, which probably arises from the hind margin of this segment, while the periphallic organs consist of the accessory structures of the ninth or other segments. The penis and parameres are usually regarded as phallic organs and the valvae, harpes, harpagones or claspers as the periphallic organs Typically the phallic structures arise as a pair of buds which later divide into two pairs; the inner pair fuses to form the penis and the outer pair becomes the parameres. This is known as a result of the investigations of Pruthi (1924 and 1924a), Metcalfe





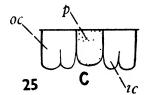


Fig. 25.—Schematic diagram to show the order of differentiation of the penis (p) and the claspers from the buds (id) of the genitalia.

(1932), Rawat (1939) and others. In the Hymenoptera a similar division occurs, dividing the original pair of buds into an inner and an outer pair. Later from a more posterior position on the outer pair the inner claspers develop. These latter structures are therefore of the nature of endites and appear to have developed in response to the rôle they have to perform in copulation. They have no connection with the rudiments of the penis, but are differentiations from the outer claspers. Hence the inner claspers alone cannot be given the status of parameres but they and the outer together should correspond to the parameres of other orders of insects. This is contrary to the view of some Hymenopterists who regard the inner claspers as the counterparts of the parameres in other orders.

Thus it becomes obvious that in the Hymenoptera typically only phallic organs are present. The periphallic structures are probably represented only in the ontogeny of some forms, viz. *Polemon* and *Pteromalus*. Tiegs (1922) is the only author who differs from the view of previous authors and myself. According to Tiegs, in the Chalcid *Nasonia*, the penis arises as a pair of append-

ages from the tenth segment. The claspers are beak-like and develop from the ninth sternum. It is probable that these beak-like claspers do not correspond to the claspers found in Chalcids, but are of the nature of the subgenital plates of Pruthi, i.e., periphallic structures. If they did, then it would be a unique feature peculiar to Nasonia, for claspers in the Chalcids have always been known to form a covering sheath for the penis, as has been shown by Embleton (1904), Imms (1916, 1919), James (1926) and Hanna (1934), and they are never beak-like.

Observations by Wheeler (1893), Tiegs (1922), Else (1934), Roonwal (1937), Sharif (1937) and Rawat (1939) indicate that the phallic structures arise from the tenth segment. I am not in a position to state definitely whether the phallic structures of the Hymenoptera belong to the ninth or tenth segment, as they arise from an intermediate position. If it is maintained, as is done by the above authors, that they belong to the tenth segment, then in the sawfly Nematus the abdominal feet on this segment are comparable to the periphallic structures. If on the other hand, as is maintained by Pruthi, Metcalfe, George and others, the genitalia belong to the ninth segment, then the additional buds present on this segment in Polemon and Pteromalus (vide fig. 24, B, C) are comparable to periphallic structures. If the abdominal feet of sawfly larvae are not considered homologous to true appendages, then there is a possibility that the buds of the genitalia represent appendages of the tenth segment, and those on the ninth as seen in *Polemon* and *Pteromalus* represent appendages on the ninth segment. Furthermore, recent observations by Mehta (1933) on the Lepidoptera show that the harpes develop separately from the primary rudiments of the genitalia. The former arise from a pair of thickenings on the ninth segment and the latter from a median outgrowth. More recently Peck (1937), from morphological studies of the genitalia of the ICHNEUMONIDAE (Hym.), is inclined to believe that the squamae (outer claspers) of Hymenoptera are comparable with the harpes of Lepidoptera or the harpagones of Mecoptera. Peck's contention does not receive support from the actual facts of development as shown by the present study, or from the investigations of previous authors on the Hymenoptera. As to the investigations of Mehta, if they are correct, then it appears that the harpes of Lepidoptera correspond to the subgenital plates of Pruthi or the periphallic structures of Snodgrass. The counterparts of the parameres have probably not been differentiated in the forms studied by this author. Recent observations by Metcalfe on Gastroidea polygoni and Anthonomus pomorum (Coleoptera) also show this simple condition in which the parameres are not differentiated. In this connection it may be pointed out that earlier researches of Zander (1903) are not in agreement with the findings of Mehta. The former author has shown from his investigations on Paraponyx (Lepidoptera) that the harpes also develop from the primary pair of imaginal discs. With regard to the contention of Snodgrass (1936) that the penis arises as an unpaired organ, neither my observations nor investigators on other orders, other than Muir (1918) on Coleoptera and Mehta (1933) on Lepidoptera, lend support. In this connection it may be said that other investigators of these two orders of insects are at variance with the above-mentioned authors. these Zander (1903) and Verson and Bisson (vide George 1928) on Lepidoptera and Pruthi (1924a) and Metcalfe (1932) on Coleoptera may be especially mentioned. Hence opinions on this point are contradictory and only further research can reveal the facts.

As to the question of the anterior processes of the penis valves, i.e. the sagittae of authors, the facts of development show that these structures are

modifications of the penis and as they do not arise or remain free structures, they cannot be considered as of the same status as the parameres as some authors maintain. Finally the structures described in *Prosopis* as the ventral depressions of the penis valves are also modifications of the penis. A strong argument that can be advanced against these latter structures representing parameres is that similar structures are absent in *Cephus*, which is a more primitive form. Finally, if one is to give such secondary modifications the same status as parameres, then the homologies would become very difficult, for there are forms which have greatly modified volsellae, viz. the MUTILLIDAE (Vespoidea); there are also forms possessing a secondarily modified penis, *e.g.* some Orthoptera.

From the above discussion the following conclusions seem reasonable.

1. The genitalia of adult Hymenoptera are phallic structures, in the sense of Snodgrass.

2. They arise from a single pair of appendages from the hind margin of the

ninth sternum.

3. The penis is comparable with the penis of Colcoptera, Diptera, Hemiptera,

etc., as is shown subsequently.

4. The claspers are comparable with the parameres of other orders, such as Coleoptera, Diptera, Hemiptera, as is to be seen subsequently. The inner claspers being mere outgrowths on the outer, of the nature of endites, probably

develop in response to their need in copulation.

5. În Polemon and Pteromalus periphallic structures are represented in ontogeny by a pair of buds on the ninth segment, if it be accepted that the phallic structures also belong to this segment. On the other hand, if it is accepted that the phallic structures belong to the tenth segment as Else, Roonwal, Rawat and Sharif believe, then the abdominal feet, present in the sawfly Nematus, are probably comparable with periphallic structures, provided it is admitted, as Imms thinks, that these abdominal feet are remnants of true limbs.

Three views have been advanced to date as to the nature of genitalia.

Walker (1922), Pruthi (1924), George (1928), Bekker (1930) and Metcalfe (1932) regard the primary rudiments of the male genitalia as the endopodites of the ninth segment, homologous with the posterior valves of the ovipositor.

According to the second view the intromittent organ arises as a median outgrowth of the body wall from the hind margin of the ninth segment (Muir,

Snodgrass).

According to the third view the genitalia are considered special outgrowths of the ectoderm and are not comparable with the posterior valves. This view further maintains that they arise from a pair of rudiments ("primitivzapfen"), each of which divides into an inner and an outer part. The outer parts become the parameres and the inner parts fuse to form the intromittent organ. Zander is the strongest advocate of this view, and he has found support for it in Trichoptera, Lepidoptera and Hymenoptera. Embryological evidence advanced by Wheeler (1893), Else (1934), and Roonwal (1937) suggests that the genitalia represent abdominal appendages, and the present study is in general agreement with these conclusions.

A review of the genitalia shows that the phallic structures arise from a pair of rudiments among various insects, and become later differentiated. The outer parts of these structures, called parameres, have become forceps-shaped in some, viz. Trichoptera, Hymenoptera, Diptera, etc., and have a clasping function. In others, e.g. Orthoptera, Hemiptera, etc., they have retained

a simpler condition. The styli of such insects as the Orthoptera and Ephemeroptera are represented in the ontogeny of some orders, viz. Hemiptera (as shown by Pruthi and Metcalfe), Hymenoptera (as shown by me in Polemon and *Pteromalus* or probably the abdominal feet in the sawfly represent them), Coleoptera (as shown by Pruthi and Metcalfe) and Aphaniptera as shown by Sharif. Verhoeff (1903) from morphological studies concluded that the parameres of Dermaptera, Hymenoptera, Coleoptera and Diptera are homologous structures. Very recently Crampton (1938) has also expressed a similar opinion that the genital forceps of the Holometabola belonging to the "forcipate" series (i.e. Mecoptera, Trichoptera, Diptera, etc.) are homologous structures comparable with the parameres of Colcoptera and Dermaptera. Finally, Snodgrass (1935) is also of the opinion that the genitalia of the Hymenoptera consist of phallic structures only. Verhoeff goes to the extent of comparing the penis of Machilis with the parameres of other insects. Whether such a comparison can be made or not, I am not in a position to give an opinion, especially as so little is known about the development of these structures in the Thysanura. In this connection it may be said that Snodgrass (1936) maintains that the penis in the Thysanura arises as a median organ. If this is true, then Verhoeff's contention cannot be accepted, but the recent remark made by Imms (1937) "that in the Thysanuran Nicoletia the penis is slightly bifurcate distally and apparently thus still retains traces of its former double origin," does make one doubt the truth of the opinion expressed by Snodgrass.

Hypandrium.

While the ninth sternum is generally regarded as the last complete sternum in the male, on which the genitalia rest, in the primitive bee *Prosopis* this segment and the eighth have both suffered arrestation of development and lie hidden under the seventh, which is the functional hypandrium in the adult. It is difficult to explain this peculiarity; most probably it is connected with the act of copulation. The seventh being a more anterior sternum, it is larger in size and perhaps gives a better support to the genitalia.

Efferent system.

The vasa deferentia run posteriorly from the testes and terminate in ampullae (ta) which abut on the median invagination, which becomes the genital chamber (gc) (figs. 15, E; 19, A) or the imaginal discs (id) where these are present (fig. 18, A). The accessory glands (ag) are the anteriorly directed evaginations of these ampullae, and the remaining portions of these ampullae become the seminal vesicles (vs). This is very clearly seen in fig. 15, F. The ejaculatory duct arises as a median invagination from the bases of the imaginal discs among the various forms.

In Polemon, Pteromalus and Vespa the penis valves fuse for the greater part of their length. This results in converting the enclosed space into a tube. This tube is in continuation of the ejaculatory duct, as illustrated by fig. 18, E. In Apis the apical portion of the penial tube, which is of less diameter than the basal portion, forms the ejaculatory duct. The ends of the vasa deferentia may open directly into the anterior limit of the ejaculatory duct as is seen in Polemon, Pteromalus, Vespa and Prosopis; or the anterior region of the ejaculatory duct may flatten and diverge into two short arms into each of which opens the vas deferens of its side as is seen in Apis mellifica.

In the sawflies Cephus and Nematus a tongue-shaped depression (l) which

starts from the dorsal side of the anterior limit of the ejaculatory duct divides it into two short ducts (le) (vide fig. 15, G, H) into each of which opens the vas deferens of its side.

From the above account of the efferent ducts it becomes evident that in the adult insect the vasa deferentia, accessory glands and the seminal vesicles are derived from the mesoderm. The ejaculatory duct and in some cases (as seen in *Cephus, Nematus* and *Apis*) the basal portions of the vasa deferentia are of ectodermal origin.

Three views have been advanced with regard to the nature of the efferent

genital system of the male.

According to the first view, the entire efferent genital system is derived from the ectoderm. In the Hymenoptera, Michaelis is the only author who upholds this. He based his interpretations mainly on dissections and his observations, therefore, cannot be regarded as final and they have not received support from other investigations on Hymenoptera, or from other recent investigators working on other orders.

According to the second view, the posterior terminal portions of the vasa deferentia (e.g. paired ejaculatory ducts of Pruthi), the accessory glands and the ejaculatory duct are derived from the ectoderm. Only the anterior region

of the vasa deferentia are of mesodermal origin.

Boulangé (1924), working with Sirex, is the only author who seems to uphold this view in the Hymenoptera, but he does not advance convincing proof. He is not even sure about the origin of the vasa deferentia. That the vasa deferentia are mesodermal in origin is so well known, that it is difficult to understand how Boulangé could have missed this point. The only argument that I can advance is that Boulangé based his interpretations on oblique sections, a fact which he admits in his account. Furthermore, it is very unfortunate that Boulangé makes no mention of the then recent work of Zander (1916), which might perhaps have simplified matters for him. Among recent authors working on orders other than Hymenoptera the following hold the above view: Pruthi (1924, 1924a) and Metcalfe (1932, 1932a) in Hemiptera and Coleoptera, Mehta (1933) in Lepidoptera and Muir (1918) in Coleoptera.

According to the third view, the ejaculatory duct alone is of ectodermal origin. The seminal vesicles, accessory glands, vasa deferentia and their terminal ampullae are of mesodermal origin, there being no counterparts of the paired or lateral ejaculatory ducts of Pruthi. This view has received wide acceptance and in the Hymenoptera embryological investigations by Carrière and Bürger on the mason bee *Chalicodoma* confirm it. Most authors are in complete agreement with this view. While my account is in general agreement, it may be pointed out here, as has been said above, that the basal portions of the vasa deferentia in *Cephus*, *Nematus* and *Apis* are derived from the ectoderm. Zander (1916) and Bishop (1920) working with *Apis* arrived at similar conclusions. The paired ejaculatory ducts of authors (Pruthi, Mehta and Metcalfe) seem to correspond to these basal ectodermal portions.

In my opinion the most reasonable thing would be to demarcate the mesodermal regions of the vasa deferentia, which end at their terminal ampullae, as shown by the embryological researches of Wheeler (1893), Carrière and Bürger (1897) and Roonwal (1937) and the post-embryonic researches of most recent authors.

The ejaculatory duct has been admitted as of ectodermal origin. In some cases its apical end becomes divided into two short lateral ducts as seen in Cephus, Nematus and Apis, and also shown to occur by previous authors, viz.

Metcalfe and Pruthi. It appears that this section of the ejaculatory duct which joins the mesodermal vasa deferentia is not present in the forms on which advocates of the third view have worked and this has apparently led them to criticise others.

Accessory glands.

Two types of such structures are known to exist among insects—ectadenia and mesadenia. In the Hymenoptera, as seen from the present study, only mesadenia exist. In other forms, as shown by Pruthi in Coleoptera and Rawat in Hemiptera, both ectadenia and mesadenia are present. In still other forms, as those described in Lepidoptera by Mehta, and in Coleoptera by Metcalfe and Muir, only ectadenia exist, for these authors clearly state that they arise from the ectoderm. When mesadenia are present they seem to be always derived from the end section of the vasa deferentia. This fact is admitted by most recent authors and is also shown by my investigations.

Seminal vesicles.

These structures with few exceptions (Metcalfe in Colcoptera, Boulangé in Sirex (Hymenoptera), etc.) are considered to be derived from the mesoderm, and from the present study it becomes evident that this is so.

SUMMARY.

The rudiments of the genitalia arise as a pair of buds from the hind margin of the ninth sternum. The claspers are regarded as homologous to the parameres of other orders, e.g. Coleoptera, Diptera, etc., the inner claspers being mere outgrowths on the outer. In Cephus, Nematus, Polemon, Pteromalus, Vespula and Apis the penis gives rise to a pair of anteriorly directed processes (the sagittae of authors) which are considered to be modifications of the penis. structures described in *Prosopis* as the "ventral depression of the penis valves" are also modifications of the penis and are not comparable with the parameters. Pruthi and Metcalfe have shown that the styli of such insects as the Orthoptera and Ephemeroptera are represented in the ontogeny of Hemiptera and Coleoptera. It appears that in Polemon and Pteromalus such structures are represented in ontogeny by a pair of buds on the ninth sternum which atrophy in course of development. The vasa deferentia, accessory glands and seminal vesicles are of mesodermal, the ejaculatory duct of ectodermal origin. Cephus, Nematus and Apis the apical end of the ejaculatory duct becomes divided into two short ducts into which joins the vasa deferentia. In Pteromalus a short conical median diverticulum develops from the ejaculatory duct. This structure probably stores sperm for a single complete discharge. My observations on Polemon, Pteromalus, and Prosopis show that in these insects a polypod stage occurs in development.

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ABBREVIATIONS ON THE FIGURES.

V8

X

region of ectoderm separating the com-

mon oviduct and the spermatheca.

ad anterior process of the penis. nerve ganglion. accessory gland. oviduct. ag ag' female accessory gland. oc outer clasper. al alkaline gland. op outer plate. $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{v}$ anterior valve. ov ovary. basal ring. penis. h p pdb7 buds of 7th segment. poison duct. rudiment of claspers. pg acid gland. pgr rudiment of acid gland. common oviduct. co poison sac. coi invagination of common oviduct. ps anterior median diverticulum of the pt penial tube. d ejaculatory duct. $\mathbf{p}\mathbf{v}$ posterior valve. pvp process of posterior valve. dр dorsal plates of the penis. ejaculatory duct. shsheath. f spermatheca. follicle. sp fp subgenital plate (7th sternum). spr rudiment of spermatheca. st female accessory pouch. stylet. genital chamber. testis. gc ger terminal ampulla of oviduct. rudiment of the genital chamber. ta gut. hypandrium. gu h to terebra. vagina. vd vasa deferentia. vd' ventral depression. invagination. ic inner claspers. id buds of the genitalia. **v**e vestibulum inner plate. seminal vesicle.

lv lateral valve. m muscle.

lateral arm of common oviduct.

ip

la.

THE AQUATIC HEMIPTERA OF THE HEBRIDES

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WITH 26 TEXT-FIGURES.

This paper is based on the study of 1050 specimens of aquatic Hemiptera collected on the Hebridean islands by Prof. J. W. Heslop Harrison, D.Sc., F.R.S., and members of his biological parties, between 1935 and 1939. It also summarises previous records from this area and attempts to compare the fauna with that of the rest of the British Isles.

I have examined all the specimens mentioned above, and microscopical preparations have been made from 115 of them. Many have also been examined by Prof. Heslop Harrison, and others from the islands of Raasay

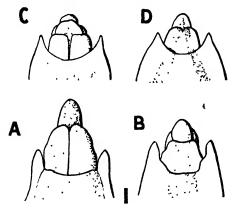
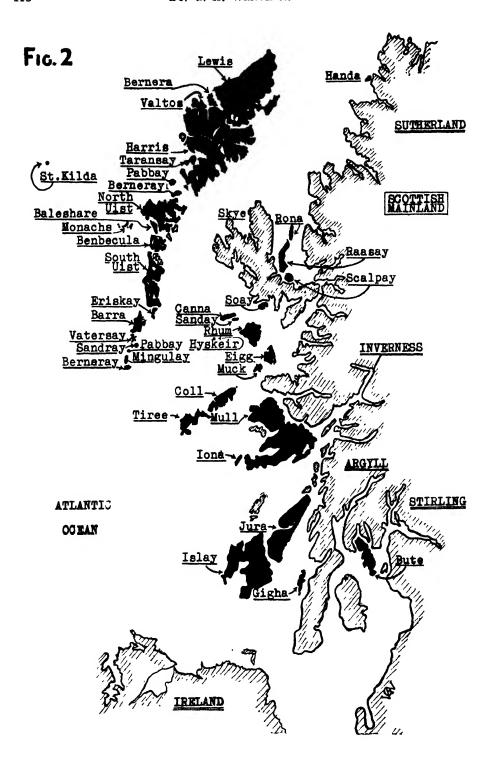


Fig. 1.—a, b, apex of the abdomen in *Gerris costai* (female) from Lewis; c and d, the same of *G. thoracica*. a and c, ventral view; b and d, dorsal view.

and Mull were identified by Dr. K. Jordan of Bautzen. The collections were made on 25 islands: those in the Inner Hebridean group were Tiree, Coll, Muck, Eigg, Rum, Hyskeir, Soay, Raasay and Handa, a small island off the west coast of Sutherland; those in the Outer Hebridean group were Berneray, Mingulay, Pabbay (south of Barra), Sandray, Vatersay, Barra, Eriskay, South Uist, Baleshare, The Monachs, North Uist, Berneray and Pabbay (in the Sound of Harris), Harris and Taransay. Collections were also obtained from Valtos in Lewis and from Bernera. Southern islands are listed before the northern ones.

It is worth mentioning that although the collections were made by eighteen different persons whose main interests, however, were botanical, not entomological, they are not large for such an extensive area. Therefore, as will be seen in the discussion at the end of this paper, common species appear to be more abundant than they are in fact. The reverse is true for the rarer species. Nevertheless the collections are unique, and, taken in conjunction with previous



records, permit the construction of a true picture of the aquatic Hemipterous fauna of these islands. Later it is hoped that a short paper on the ecology will follow.

The present times being unfavourable to scientific work of this nature, it has not been possible to give details and measurements for every specimen, although such data would enable the present material to be compared more accurately with material from the mainland of Scotland, when obtained. However, I have selected suitable specimens and series and give measurements of body length, the proportions of the tibia, tarsus and claws of the middle leg of many of the Corixidae (measured in 0.04 mm.), the number of pronotal lines, pegs on the male palae and number of combs in the strigils of the males in the Corixidae, as well as a brief description of the general appearance, male abdominal segments and genitalia. Wherever previous works and records are mentioned these are accompanied by a number referring to the bibliography at the end of the paper. The nomenclature of the Corixidae follows the latest work dealing with this group: "A Revision of the Corixidae of India and Adjacent Regions," 1940, Trans. Conn. Acad. Arts Sci. 33: 339-476, by Prof. G. E. Hutchinson.

Records from Mull (7), Bute (7), Iona (1), Gigha (7), Islay (7), Jura (7), Canna (10), Sanday (10), Scalpay (4), Rona (4) and Benbecula (27), islands from which collections have previously been made, are indicated in the following detailed study only by numerical reference to the bibliography, but I have seen some of the specimens and made microscopical preparations of a few from Islay (17) and Jura.

Since 35 islands in all are mentioned, and as they are difficult to locate on most maps, a map showing their positions is included for reference (fig. 2).

I. THE SPECIES.

VELIIDAE.

Velia currens Fabricius.

Few specimens were taken by the Heslop Harrison expeditions: they were one larva from Muck, two females from Rhum, one male from Soay; in the Inner Hebrides. From the Outer Hebrides there were five females from Harris, one female from North Uist and one larva from Berneray. The specimens are all apterous and of a robust build, averaging 7 mm. in length. Thus they are on the large and dark side of the normal appearance, since the dark line at the sides of the abdomen is continuous and not interrupted as is usual. Nymphs were common in June and July. This species has been previously recorded from Islay (7), Jura (7), Canna (10), Raasay (4), Rona (4), Benbecula (27), Scalpay (4), Barra (5), S. Uist (6), St. Kilda (8) and Harris (2), but no macropterous examples are mentioned. It is therefore common in the Hebridean Islands, and the records indicate that, unlike the south, it is found on all types of habitat including ditches, pools and lakes.

GERRIDAE.

Gerris lateralis Schummel (Fieber nec Schummel).

One macropterous female of this rare species was discovered in the collections from Coll made in May 1937 by Dr. George Heslop Harrison. This is the only record for the Scottish Islands.

Gerris thoracica Schummel.

One macropterous female was collected at Valtos, on the west coast of Lewis in July 1939. This is a typical specimen measuring 11 mm. in length and 3 mm. across the middle coxae; it is therefore the narrow olivaceous form found in the greater part of the British Isles, unlike the broad russet-coloured form found in some parts of Ireland. The tip of the abdomen is shown in fig. 1, c and d. This species has previously been recorded from the islands of Raasay (4), Scalpay (4), Barra (5), and Benbecula (27).

Gerris costai Herrich-Schaeffer (emend.).

There are 24 specimens of this species in the collections, and all are of the typical robust type, russet brown in colour, with reddish thoracic discs. They came from the following islands:—

Inner Hebrides:—Coll: May 1937, 2 males each 11.5 mm. long and 3

females 11.5-12.5 mm. long.

Outer Hebrides:—Mingulay: July 1937, 2 males; Vatersay: July 1937, 1 male; North Uist: July 1938, 5 males, two 12 mm. long and three 13 mm. long; 3 females, one 12 mm. long and two 13 mm. long; Harris: July 1938, 3 males of average length 12·16 mm., and average breadth across the middle coxae of 3 mm., and 4 females of average length 12·9 mm. and average breadth across the middle coxae of 3·5 mm.; Lewis (Valtos): July 1939, 1 female 13 mm. long and 3·5 mm. across the middle coxae. The genital segments are shown in fig. 1, a and b, for comparison with the female G. thoracica.

This species has previously been recorded from Islay (7), Jura (7), Benbecula (27), Mull (7), Canna (10), Raasay (4), Scalpay (4), Barra (5) and Harris (2); it is therefore common and widely distributed. It occurs in a wide

variety of habitats including brackish pools.

Gerris lacustris L.

An uncommon Hebridean species recorded so far only from the southern half of the Inner Hebrides.

Eigg: July 1937, 1 brachypterous male 8.5 mm. long and one macropterous female 9.5 mm. long; Rhum: August 1937, 2 macropterous females each 9 mm. long; Soay: August 1937, 1 macropterous female 9 mm. long. Previously recorded from Islay (7) and Jura (7).

Gerris odontogaster Zetterstedt.

No specimens were found in the present collections, but it has previously been recorded from the islands of Mull (7), Raasay (4), Rona (4), Scalpay (4) and S. Uist (6).

Gerris spp. nymphs.

Barra: August 1939, probably fifth instar G. costai; Berneray: July 1939, probably G. lacustris.

CIMICIDAE.

Cryptostemma alienum Herrich-Schaeffer.

This species has been recorded from Jura by Hutchinson (7).

SALDIDAE.

Salda littoralis L.

Barra: August 1939, one typical female.

Previously recorded from Jura (7), Canna (10), Rona (4), Barra (5) and South Uist (6).

Saldula saltatoria L.

Previously recorded from Raasay (4), Barra (5) and Harris (2).

Saldula pallipes Fabricius.

Previously recorded from Sanday (10), Raasay (4), Jura (7) and Canna (10).

Saldula scotica Curtis.

Previously recorded from Jura (7) and Raasay (4).

Salda morio Zetterstedt.

Previously recorded from Barra (5) and Raasay (4).

NEPIDAE.

Nepa cinerea L.

One fifth-instar nymph from Muck, July 1939. Previously recorded from Islay (7), Canna (10) and Barra (5).

NOTONECTIDAE.

Notonecta glauca glauca L.

Soay: August 1937, one typical female 14 mm. long, and 3 fifth-instar nymphs probably belonging to this species. Previously recorded only from Islav (7), Raasay (4), Rona (4) and Barra (5).

Notonecta obliqua obliqua Gallén.

Inner Hebrides: -Tiree: July 1935, two females 15 mm. long; Coll: May 1937, 3 males and 1 female, all 15.5 mm. long; Muck: July 1939, 1 male 15 mm. long, 1 male 16 mm. long and 3 females all 16 mm. long; Eigg: July 1937, 2 specimens 16 mm. long; Rhum: May 1938, 1 male, August 1938, 8 specimens; Soay: August 1937, 4 males and 1 female, all 15 mm. long; Raasay: August 1937, 3 specimens.

Outer Hebrides:—Mingulay: July 1937, 1 male and 1 female; Barra: August 1939, 2 females 16 mm. long; Eriskay: August 1938, 1 female; South Uist: August 1938, 1 female; North Uist: July 1938, 2 males 15.5 mm. long; Harris: July 1938, 2 males; Berneray: July 1939, 1 male.

N. obliqua has previously been recorded from Islay (7), Benbecula (27), Rona (4), Scalpay (4) and Barra (5). This makes 17 islands, or half those on which collections have been made. All these 40 specimens are typical in appearance.

Notonecta nymphs were present in many of the collections and probably the majority are the larvae of N. obliqua. These came from Eigg May 1938, Rhum May 1938, Raasay August 1937, Barra August 1939, Sandray July 1939, Vatersay July 1939, Berneray July 1939, one being 15½ mm. long,

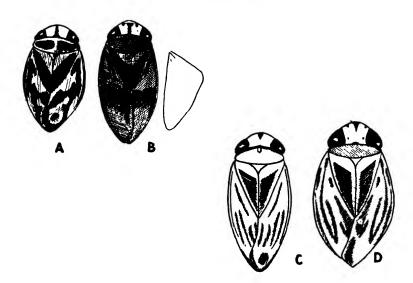


Fig. 3.—a, Micronecta poweri from South Uist (brachypterous male); b, M. poweri? (sub-macropterous female) from Eriskay, showing size of wing drawn to same scale; c, M. minutissima from Eriskay (macropterous female); d, M. scholtzii from Gloucestershire (brachypterous female).

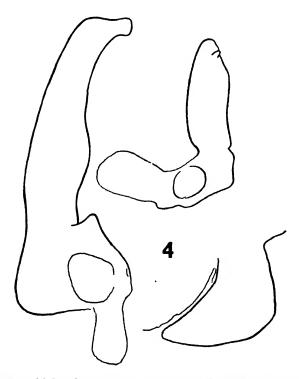


Fig. 4.—Parameres and lobe of the 5th male tergite in Micronecta poweri from South Uist.

Pabbay (Harris) July 1939, Lewis (Valtos) July 1939, Taransay July 1938. Nymphs have previously been recorded from Jura (7), Canna (10) and South Uist (6).

Notonecta obliqua obliqua var. delcourti Poisson.

One female of this striking variety was collected on Muck in July 1939. This specimen is 16 mm. long. and shows the large pale brown blotch on the middle of the corium characteristic of this variety first described from France. I have taken it occasionally in Cornwall, Somerset, Hants and Gloucestershire.

CORIXIDAE.

Ninety-eight Corixid larvae were found in collections dating from May to August. Few of these can be identified with certainty, except those of the genera Micronecta, Cymatia, Glaenocorixa and Corixa in all stages, and those of Corixa punctata, C. dentipes, C. scotti, C. striata in the last instar, and, when the ecology is known, those of the subgenera Anticorixa, Callicorixa and Halicorixa.

Micronecta poweri Douglas & Scott.

One brachypterous male collected on South Uist in August 1938 is a typical specimen. The strigil and palae are quite typical as are the lobes of the sixth tergite and left valve of the eighth tergite, and genitalia. The relative lengths of the middle legs are: tibia 11, tarsus 15, claw 10 (these figures for



Fig. 5.—Claw and tarsus of the middle leg of Micronecta minutissima from Eriskay.

the Micronecta specimens are merely arbitrary and not in twenty-fifths of a

millimetre) (fig. 3, a and 4).

Two submacropterous females, possibly of this species, collected on Eriskay in August 1938 are rather pale in colour. The pronotum is not as long as in fully macropterous examples (fig. 8 B, 4), neither are the membranes wings quite so long, nor the membrane of the hemielytra so fully developed. Apart from this, the markings are barely consistent with M. poweri and the proportions of the segments of the middle leg are: claw 10, tarsus 15, tibia 8.4. The claw tarsus ratio is correct, but the tibia is short. It is to be regretted that no males were taken. These specimens are illustrated (fig. 3, b), since they are not quite like any M. poweri studied when I wrote my paper on the British species of Micronecta (17).

Micronecta minutissima L.

A single female was collected on Eriskay in August 1938. I refer it to this species although no male was taken, since in appearance it resembles the three other definitely British specimens from Colchester which I have before me for comparison. Like these three, it is macropterous, and the pronotum is far shorter than in macropterous females of M. poweri (fig. 8 B, 4); moreover the claw tarsus ratio is 10, 18, agreeing quite favourably with the other British specimens which are 10, 17; this ratio in M. poweri is 10, 14-10, 15. Two other specimens of M. minutissima in the collection of the late Canon

Fowler, without definite locality but presumably British, also agree with this Hebridean example. The most peculiar thing about this specimen is that the left middle tarsus is definitely two-segmented (fig. 5). This two-segmented tarsus is met with in only the very primitive notogean Corixid genus *Diaprepocoris*, apart from which I know of no specimen throughout the CORIXIDAE which shows this condition; it is unique. This specimen is illustrated in fig. 3, c.

Cymatia coleoptrata Fabricius.

Two males and one female of this species were found in the collections from the island of Tiree in the Inner Hebrides, July 1935. There is a previous Hebridean record for Harris by Dale, quoted by Saunders, but it is not mentioned by Dale in his paper on the Hemiptera of Harris, 1882, nor are there any such specimens in his collection studied by the late Commander J. J. Walker in 1933. Apart from these specimens, Cymatia coleoptrata does not appear to occur north of a line drawn across from the Wash to Hereford and down to the Severn Estuary, and is common only in a broad strip along the coastlands of the southern counties, nor does it occur in Ireland and, further, does not appear to have been collected in Cornwall. The vast majority of these southern specimens are brachypterous and incapable of flight. The only macropterous specimens on record were collected by myself, four from Hereford, two from Wiltshire and one from Somerset, while one specimen is recorded from Poland by Jaczewski, so that the chances of dispersal are naturally small (fig. 8 B, 3). There is therefore a distributional gap of 350 miles of land and 10 of sea between the locality of the specimens taken in Tiree and their relatives in the south.

On examination these three specimens are very like the southern form; what slight variations occur could almost be explained as being comparable with the degree of variation found in other Hebridean material yet to be discussed, but the lesser paramere of one male is very different from that seen in the southern form that corresponds closely with the continental type. The lesser paramere of the second male is also different, but this tiny object was lost in the process of dehydration and cannot be figured here. That variations of a marked degree can be found in this organ among specimens of Corinidae from the same locality is demonstrated later in this paper, but they are exceedingly rare and may be disregarded here. I suggest that these definite structural variations from the typical form, the flightless condition of the insect and its isolation warrant the creation of a subspecies and propose the following name:—

Cymatia coleoptrata insularis subsp. n.

Like Cymatia c. coleoptrata Fabricius in general appearance and structure, and brachypterous and flightless, but having lesser male parameres of a different shape, and isolated in the Hebridean Islands. Structure as fig. 8 A. The relative lengths of the segments of the middle leg are: claw 12, tarsus 19, tibia 22, femur 40 in the female and for the male, claw 11, tarsus 17, tibia 20, femur 37 (figs. 6, 7 and 8 A).

Cymatia bonsdorffi Sahlberg.

Inner Hebrides:—Tiree: September 1935, 6 brachypterous males and 3 brachypterous females. The markings are normal and the males measure 5-6 mm. in length. Hemielytra are slightly shorter than normal. Male abdominal segments and parameres as figs. 9, and 10, c, d, e, g. The lengths

of the middle leg segments are: claw 17, tarsus 30, tibia 39. July 1935, 1 macropterous male 6 mm. long, 1 male and 1 female brachypterous. The macropterous specimens have a longer and more convex pronotum and the thorax is thicker dorso-ventrally. The hemielytra are also longer and the membrane more fully formed, the wings being as long as the abdomen (fig. 8 B, 1, 2); Coll: July 1935, 2 brachypterous males; Muck: May 1935, 2 brachypterous males; 1937, 6 brachypterous males and 3 brachypterous females.

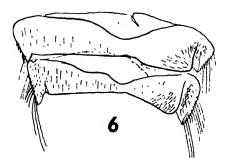


Fig. 6.—Sixth and seventh male abdominal segments of Cymatia coleoptrata insularis.

These males measure 5.5-6 mm. in length and are normal in colour and markings. The wings are of variable length, in some they reach down to the posterior border of the metanotum, in others to the end of the embolium. The lengths of the middle leg segments in four specimens were: claw 18, 19, 20, 20; tarsus 31, 31, 31; tibia 36, 36, 40, 38; Eigg: August 1936, 1 brachypterous male; Rhum: July 1937, 1 macropterous male still teneral, and one fifth-instar nymph; August 1938, 4 brachypterous males and 3

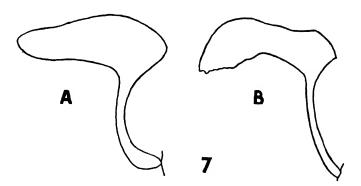


Fig. 7.—Lesser paramere of a, Cymatia coleoptrata coleoptrata; b, lesser paramere of C. c. insularis.

brachypterous females; Hyskeir: August 1938, 1 brachypterous male; Soay: August 1937, 2 males, one macropterous and the other brachypterous.

Outer Hebrides:—Mingulay: July 1937, 2 brachypterous males; Barra: September 1935, 5 brachypterous males 6 mm. long and 6 brachypterous females 6.5 mm. long, 1 macropterous female 6.5 mm. long. The wings are short in the brachypterous series and the hemielytra are slightly longer than usual but the colour and markings are normal. The lengths of the segments of the

middle leg of one male were: claw 19, tarsus 33, tibia 39. The shapes of the male parameres and the brachypterous and macropterous types of pronotum in the female are shown in figs. 10, a-g, and 8 B 1 & 2 respectively.

Thus four out of a total of 51 specimens were macropterous, a very high proportion for this species. It has previously been recorded from Gigha, Islay, Jura (7), Mull (7), Scalpay (4), Harris (2) and Barra (5), and thus occurs on four times as many Inner as Outer Hebridean islands.

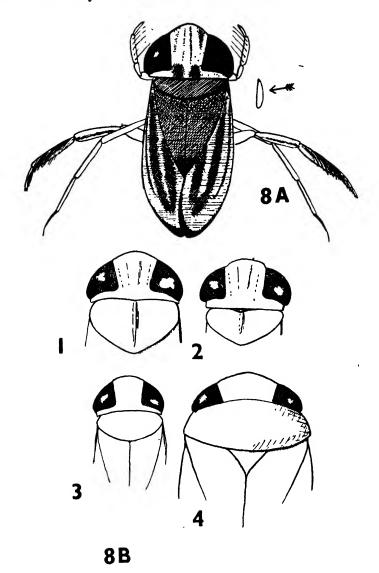


Fig. 8.—A, male of Cymatia coleoptrata insularis. Arrow indicates size of wing drawn to same scale. B, 1, head and pronotum of macropterous female Cy. bonsdorffi; 2, head and pronotum of brachypterous female Cy. bonsdorffi; 3, head and pronotum of macropterous female Cy. coleoptrata; 4, head and pronotum of macropterous female Micronecta poweri; compare with fig. 3, a and b.

Glaenocorixa cavifrons Thomson.

This interesting species is difficult to capture because of its habit of roving about in deep open water, especially in sandy bays of pools and tarns. No specimens were found in the present collections, but it has previously been collected on Islay (7), where it is represented by a large very dark form, and

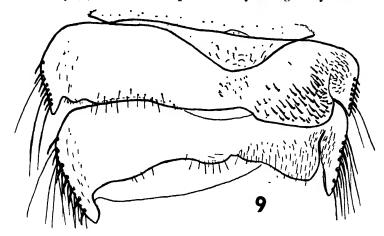


Fig. 9.—Sixth and seventh male abdominal segments of Cymatia bonsdorffi from Tiree.

from Jura, where the specimens are intermediate between the typical dark Scottish form and the smaller pale Southern specimens; I have the specimens from these islands before me. It has also been taken on Barra, one nymph from a peat cutting near Loch Obe, and 3 adults and nymphs from Lochan nam Faoileann South (5).

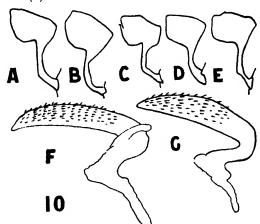


Fig. 10.—Parameres of Cymatia bonsdorffi.

Corixa (Callicorixa) wollastoni wollastoni Douglas & Scott.

This species was originally described in 1865 by Douglas and Scott from two specimens captured by T. V. Wollaston at Hebden Bridge near Halifax, Yorkshire, and the original specimens were examined by Fieber. Unlike subsequent species belonging to the subgenus Callicorixa described by them, C. wollastoni has proved to be a true and very distinct species found in the British Isles in peaty pools in the mountainous parts of Ireland, N. Wales, in the Pennine Chain and the Lake District. In all these places it occurs only at an altitude about 1500 ft. or over. In Scotland the few available records indicate that there it occurs down to sea-level. The present collections contain 42 specimens all of which came from the Outer Hebrides.

South Uist: August 1938, 3 males and 3 females. These are on the small size, being 6.5 mm. long, whereas some females I have seen reach 8 mm. This series is very dark in colour, making it difficult to count the pale pronotal

lines, which appear to vary from 9 to 10.

Baleshare: April 1938, 3 males and 6 females. A typical series with

pronotal lines varying from 8 to 11.

North Uist: July 1938, 3 males and 9 females. These males are 6.5 mm. long, typically dark in appearance and with mildly infuscated heads and legs. The paler pronotal lines number 9, 9 and 10. The lengths of the segments of the middle legs are: claw 23, tarsus 24, tibia 34. Including the insertions where pegs have been knocked off the palae the pegs vary as follows: basal row 17 on one pala; 19 on the others; apical row 11 in two, 13 in two, 12 in two. Seventh male abdominal segment as fig. 26, b.

Harris: July 1938, 3 males and 12 females. The females vary in length from 7 to 7.8 mm. and all have 10 paler pronotal lines. The males vary in length from 6.25 to 6.5 mm. The pegs in the basal row of the right palae are 18, 19, 20; in the apical row 11, 12, 12. On the left palae the basal rows have 16, 20, 20 and the apical row 11, 12, 12. The lengths of the segments of the middle leg vary from claw 23, tarsus 25, tibia 33 to claw 24.5, tarsus 25, tibia 35. Fig. 26 shows the pronotum (i), abdominal segments (a and b), and parameres (e), and the shape of the black spot on the posterior tarsi is as in fig. 12, e.

The species also occurs in the Inner Hebrides. Prof. Heslop Harrison says it is not common in the smaller peaty pools on Raasay and Scalpay, the specimens being identified by Dr. K. Jordan; and Hutchinson says of Islay and Jura: "a number of obscurely marked var. wollastoni give the series (of C. praeusta) a darker appearance than is usual." Whether these are to be regarded as true C. wollastoni or atypical C. praeusta is not clear. Prof. Heslop Harrison also took it in Loch na Liana Moire on Benbecula in

1940 (27).

Corixa (Callicorixa) wollastoni caledonica Kirkaldy.

In 1870 Douglas and Scott described a new species from Loch Leven and called it Corixa cognata; this was renamed Corixa calcdonica in 1897 by Kirkaldy. I have seen the original specimens and possess a similar series collected in Loch Leven by the Rev. E. J. Pearce, M.A. These specimens are in appearance very different from Corixa wollastoni. They are dumpy in comparison, and both males and females measure 6 mm. in length. The ground-colour of the pronotum and hemielytra is a clear yellow instead of brown and the black markings are finer and stand out clearly; those on the corium form an open disordered disjointed pattern unlike the scattered pale brown markings on a black background seen in C. wollastoni. To the naked eye all the legs look shorter and the infuscation, if present, is very slight. The palae also appear slightly smaller and less dilated apically, but the greatest differences

are seen in the male genitalia, where the parameres are smaller and intermediate between those of C. praeusta and C. wollastoni. On these characters, if constant in other Scottish material, one would be justified in regarding C. caledonica as a good species. However, a series in the present collections containing 5 females, but unfortunately only a single male, are somewhat intermediate between the form found in Loch Leven and the typical C. wollastoni. specimens were collected on the island of Handa on the 31st August 1937. They are a little longer, measuring 6-6.5 mm., and are a little darker than the Loch Leven series, so that although the hemielytral markings are similarly disjointed, they appear as pale yellowish vermiculations on a black background: and the legs do not appear so short to the naked eye. On microscopical examination the genitalia are consistent with the Loch Leven material and the front legs and palae of the single male are very similar, but otherwise the differences are too much within the limits of variation for discrimination from C. wollastoni. In the circumstances I provisionally regard those specimens showing the combination of dumpy build, open corial pattern and different genitalia as a subspecies of Corixa wollastoni, but this cannot be regarded as final until further material is available from the mainland of Scotland for comparison. With this in view, I am giving the following measurements and the drawings shown in fig. 26, c, f, k. The Loch Leven specimens have 7-10 pale pronotal lines, the pala pegs are 17-19 in the basal row and 12 in the apical row. The lengths of the segments of the middle legs are: claw 19, tarsus 23, tibia 30. The other structures are shown in fig. 12, a, b, c.

The specimens from Handa have 8-10 pale pronotal lines. The male has 17 and 18 pegs in the basal row of pala pegs and 12 and 13 in the apical row. The lengths of the segments of middle legs are: claw 23, tarsus 24, tibia 33. For typical C. wollastoni the lengths of the segments of the middle leg average:

claw 23.5, tarsus 24.6, tibia 34.

Corixa (Callicorixa) praeusta Fieber.

Inner Hebrides:—Tiree: September 1935, 1 male and 5 females. July 1935, 3 males and 1 female; Coll: July 1937, 1 male and 1 female; Muck: May 1935, 1 female; 1937, 4 males and 2 females; Eigg: August 1936, 1 male and 4 females; July 1937, 2 males and 4 females; July 1937, 5 males and 3 females. One of these females is still teneral and another has only 7 pale pronotal lines. These males are fully described to illustrate variation and for comparison with the C. wollastoni. Colour and markings quite typical. One has 9 pale pronotal lines and the others 10. Length 6-6.5 mm. Pala pegs vary from 17 to 19 in the basal row and 8 in the distal row. The lengths of the segments of the middle legs are for three specimens: claw 23, 24, 24, tarsus 25 throughout, tibia 34, 34, 35. Drawings of the abdominal segments are given in fig. 11, b and d, and the parameter of one male in fig. 26, h. Rhum: July 1937, 4 males and 1 female. These males are not quite typical; they are darker than usual, the legs and head being diffusely infuscated; moreover the markings on the corium are fragmentary and not unlike those found in C. The dark hemiclytral markings predominate but the pale intervals wollastoni. are clear and pale yellowish-brown. The pale pronotal lines are wider than the thin black ones and number 10, 9, 7, 7, with a suspicion of an eighth. A count of the pala pegs shows 16, 19, 19, 19, 20, 21 and 22 in the basal row and 8, 8, 9, 9, 10, 10 in the apical row. The lengths of the segments of the TRANS, R. ENT. SOC. LOND. 92. PART 2. (DEC. 1942.)

middle legs are: claw 23 in three specimens examined, tarsus 24, 24, 25 and The parameres and pronotum, shape of the black spot on the tibia 34 in all. posterior tarsi and variation in the abdominal segments are illustrated in fig. 26, g, j; fig. 12, d; and fig. 11, a, c, respectively.

C. pracusta has previously been recorded from Islay, Jura (7), Raasay (4), Scalpay (4) and Barra (5). The distribution in the Hebrides is thus a complete reversal of that found in C. wollastoni.

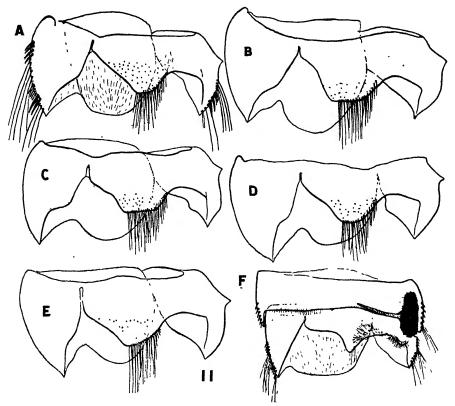


Fig. 11.—Seventh male abdominal segment in C. praeusta from a, Rhum; b, Eigg; c, Rhum; d, Eigg; e, Barra; f, sixth and seventh male abdominal segments in C. striata from Taransay.

Corixa (Vermicorixa) lateralis Leach.

One typical female was found among a long series of Corixidae taken in North Uist in July 1938. No other specimens were found in any other col-The species was recorded from Gigha in the south of the Inner lections. Hebrides by Hutchinson, who mentions a sparsity of material. This is the only other Hebridean record of a species which is among the commonest in the southern half of England and Wales, and widely distributed elsewhere.

Corixa (Vermicorixa) nigrolineata Fieber.

15 males and 28 females were found in the collections and 39 of these came from the Outer Hebrides. Most of the specimens are slightly darker than usual but apart from this the series is typical.

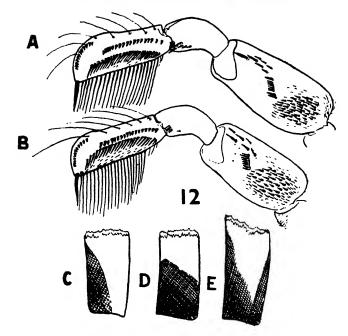


Fig. 12.—a, front leg of Corixa (Callicorixa) w. caledonica from Handa; b, front leg of Corixa (Callicorixa) w. caledonica from Loch Leven; c, black spot on apex of hind femora of C. (Callicorixa) w. caledonica; d, C. (Callicorixa) praeusta; e, C. (Callicorixa) wollastoni from Harris.

Inner Hebrides:—Hyskeir: August 1938, 1 female; Handa: August 1937, 1 male and 2 females.

Outer Hebrides:—Baleshare: April 1938, 5 males and 7 females, of which several have only 6 pale pronotal lines; North Uist: July 1938, 3 males and 5 females. One of these males is 6 mm. long and is darker than usual, but

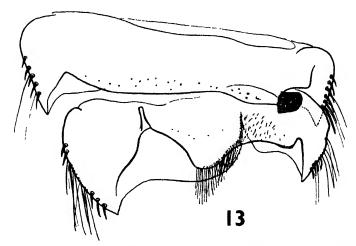


Fig. 13.—Sixth and seventh male abdominal segments of Corixa nigrolineata from North Uist.

this is due to an intensification of the pale ground-colour. The dark markings are very clear cut and a little thicker than the pale ones. There are 7 pale pronotal lines, legs and head mildly infuscated, 28 pegs on each pala, 6 combs in the strigil. The lengths of the segments of the middle leg are: claws 23, tarsi 22, tibiae 30. Genitalia typical. Abdominal segments as fig. 13. Pabbay (Harris): July 1936, 1 female; Harris: July 1938, 1 female; July 1938, 6 males and 10 females. These are dark specimens, so much so as to make it difficult to count the pronotal pale lines; in the females these appear to be 8-9. The males are 4.5-5 mm. long and the dark lines are two-thirds thicker than the pale ones. One specimen has 4 strigil combs only. Pale pronotal lines number 7, 7, 7, 8, 8, and the pala pegs, taking the right pala first, number 27-28, 29-30, 25-23, 29-25, 25-28. Taransay: July 1938, 1 female.

Corixa nigrolineata has been previously recorded from Bute (7), Islay (7), Canna (10), Sanday (10), Raasay (4), Barra (5), S. Uist (6), Harris (3), Benbecula (27), and also from the Shetlands (7).

Corixa (Retrocorixa) venusta Douglas & Scott.

The collections contain 31 specimens of this species and they all come from the Outer Hebrides. Eighteen are males.

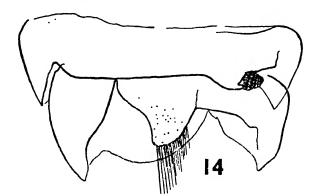


Fig. 14.—Male abdominal segments, 6th and 7th, of Corixa venusta from Harris. Chaeto-taxy omitted.

Pabbay (Barra): July 1939, 1 male; Vatersay: July 1939, 1 female; South Uist: July 1938, 1 male; North Uist: July 1938, 6 males and 4 females, 4-4·5 mm. long, i.e. rather small; Pabbay (Harris): July 1939, 1 male and 1 female; Harris: July 1938, 7 males and 7 females. Quite a typical series, dark in colour with fragmentary but distinct markings, the dark ones predominating. The females are all 5 mm. long and all have 7 pale pronotal lines. The males are 4·5-5 mm. long and all have 7 pale pronotal lines. In one specimen there are 4 strigil combs, in one 5 combs and a little extra one, in another 5 combs, a fourth has 4 combs and a little extra one, and the remainder have 6 combs. Taking the right pala and the proximal row first in each case, the pala pegs number 20 6-20 5, 17 7-indistinct, 20 6-20 6, 18 5-18 5, 18 6-19 6, 20 6-20 6. The lengths of the segments of the middle leg vary as claws 25-26, tarsi 19-20, tibiae 26-27. For drawings of the male abdominal segments and lesser parameres see figs. 14, and 17, f respectively. Berneray: July 1939, 2 males.

Corixa venusta has previously been recorded from Bute (7), Gigha (7), Islay (7), Canna (10), Sanday (10), Raasay (4), Rona (4), Scalpay (4), and from the Orkneys (7).

Corixa (Retrocorixa) semistriata Fieber.

This species seems to be as uncommon in the Hebrides as elsewhere, but it appears to be quite widely distributed.

Inner Hebrides: - Tiree: September 1935, 1 male and 3 females; Muck:

July 1939, 4 females; Handa: August 1937, 1 male.

Outer Hebrides:—Mingulay: July 1937, 1 male; Barra: August 1939, 4 males and 7 females. These are quite typical specimens. The males are all 5 mm. long, all have 7 pale pronotal lines, all have 5 strigil combs. Taking the right pala and the proximal peg row first in each case, the pala pegs number, 20 6-21 6, 22 6-23 5, 23 5-22 6, 20 6-22 6. The lengths of the seg-

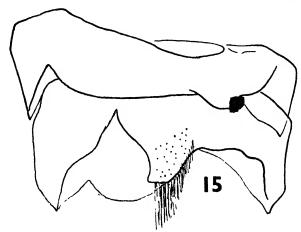


Fig. 15.—Male abdominal segments, 6th and 7th, of Corixa semistriata from Barra.

Chactotaxy omitted.

ments of the middle legs of three specimens are: claws 25, 26, 27, tarsi 19, 20, 20, tibiae 26, 26, 27. Male abdominal segments and lesser parameres as figs. 15, and 17, g, h. South Uist: August 1938, 1 female; North Uist: July 1938, 1 male and 2 females; Monachs: July 1938, 1 female.

Corixa semistriata has previously been recorded only from Barra (5).

Corixa (Retrocorixa) limitata Fieber.

Previously recorded from one pool on the island of Raasay by Prof. Heslop Harrison (4).

Corixa (Subsigara) scotti Fieber.

This is the most abundant and widespread of the Hebridean water bugs. Two hundred and eighty-five specimens were found in the collections, of which 141 are males and 144 females. For August the figures for the Inner Hebrides show an 11.9% excess of females and in July in the Outer group an excess of 6.9% of females, rising to 13% in August. C. scotti constitutes 43% of the total Corixids in the collections from the Inner Hebrides and 23% in the Outer Hebrides. The 6 islands visited and from which the species was not

collected are: Sandray, the Monachs, Berneray, Taransay, Canna and Sanday. It has previously been collected on Gigha (7), Islay (7), Jura (7), Mull (7), Rona (4), Benbecula (27) and Scalpay (4), all of which are additions to the above list, and from Raasay (4), Barra (5), South Uist (6), Harris (2, 3), and the Shetlands, a total of 27 Hebridean islands. The specimens are distributed as follows.

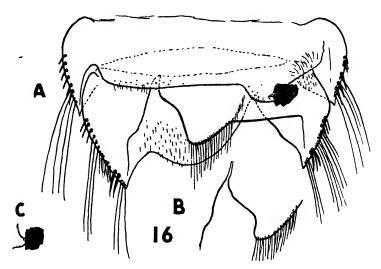


Fig., 16.—a, 6th and 7th male abdominal segments of Corixa scotti from Tiree; b, lobe of 7th abdominal segment of male C. scotti from Harris; c, strigil of male C. scotti from Harris.

Inner Hebrides:—Tiree: September 1935, 6 males and 6 females. These males measure 4.5-5 mm. long, and the colour and markings are typical. The pronotal dines number 5, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6. Strigil combs number 5, 5, 5, 5 plus a tiny comb, 6, 6. The pegs on the palae are for the right palae 27, 24, 26, 27, and for the left palae 25, 24, 28, 27 in four specimens. The lengths

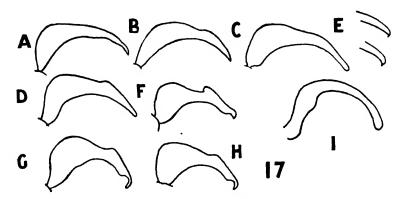


Fig. 17.—Lesser parameres of: Corixa scotti from a, North Uist; b, Tiree; c, North Uist; d, Harris; e (apex only), from North Uist; f, C. venusta from Harris; g, h, C. semistriata from Barra; i, C. sahlbergi from North Uist.

of the segments of the middle legs in two specimens are: claw 19, 20; tarsus 9, 9; tibia 18, 20. The abdominal segments are shown in fig. 16, a, and the lesser paramere in fig. 17, b. Coll: May 1937, 3 males and 3 females. One of these females is peculiar in that though not teneral the markings are very faint and in addition there is a lateral marginal corio-membranal spot of dark pigment on each hemiclytron; July 1937, 10 males and 2 females; Muck: May 1935, 19 males and 13 females; July 1939, 1 female; Eigg: August 1936, 3 males; July 1937, 15 males and 10 females. Two specimens are teneral and 3 males have only 5 pale pronotal lines. Rhum: July 1937, 4 males and 2 females. Pronotal lines in the males number 4, 5, 5, 6, and in the females 6, 6. These specimens are rather on the dark side; August 1937, 1 male and 1 female; August 1938, 1 male; Hyskeir: August 1938, 1 male and 1 female; Soay: August 1937, a typical series of 22 males and 23 females; Raasay: August 1937, 2 females; Handa: August 1937, 7 males and 2 females. All the males have 5 pale pronotal lines.

Outer Hebrides: --Mingulay: July 1937, 1 male and 4 females; Pabbay (Barra): July 1939, 2 females; Vatersay: July 1939, 2 males and 2 females; Barra: September 1935, 2 males and 2 females; August 1939, 5 males and 9 females; Eriskay: August 1938, 1 male and 1 female; South Uist: August 1938, 2 males and 6 females; August 1939, 1 female; North Uist: July 1938, 18 males and 15 females. These males vary in length from 4.5 to 5 mm. The colour and markings are typical but some have slightly infuscated legs. One specimen has only 4 pale pronotal lines, 9 have 5 lines, 3 have 5 clear lines and the suspicion of a sixth and 2 have 6 lines. Of those examined 4 have 5 strigil combs and 4 have 6 combs. Taking the right pala first in each case, the pegs vary over the following range: 21, obscured by dirt; 23, 27; 24, 27; 24, 25; 25, 24; 25, 25; 26, 24; 26, 24; 26, 24; 27, 25; 27, 26; 28, 26; 28, 28. The lengths of the segments of the middle leg in 5 specimens are: claws 25, 25, 28, 28, 29, tarsus 18, 18, 19, 20, 20, tibia 25, 26, 26, 28, 29. In one male the pegs of the palae are arranged in a unique manner, for they lean towards one another in pairs with their apices either touching or nearly so (fig. 17, a, c, e). Baleshare: April 1938, 7 males and These specimens are on the dark side of normality. One male has 4 pronotal pale lines and one has 5. Pabbay (Harris): July 1939, 3 males and I female; Harris: July 1938, 9 males and 17 females; July 1936, I male and 2 females. The females of the 1938 collection all measure 5.5 mm. in length and all have 6 pale pronotal lines. The breadth of these pronota varies in twenty-fifths of a millimetre from 37 to 41 and the length from 17 to 25. Both females and males are quite typical in appearance. The males vary from 4.5 to 5 mm, in length. Seven have 5 pale pronotal lines and 2 show a suspicion of a sixth, the rest have 6 lines. One has 4 strigil (fig. 16, c) combs and the remainder 5 combs. In 7 specimens examined the right pala has 24, 24, 26, 27, 28, 28, 29 pegs and the left pala 24, 26, 27, 25, 25, 28 and 29 pegs. The lobe of the seventh tergite is shown in fig. 16, b, and the lesser parameter in fig. 17, d. Lewis (Valtos): July 1939, 2 females; Berneray: July 1939, 1 male and 3 females.

Corixa (Subsigara) fossarum Leach.

Previously recorded from Gigha (7), Islay (7), Raasay (16, 4) and Harris (2).

Corixa prominula Thomson.

This doubtful species has been recorded from Harris by Douglas and is quoted by Saunders who, after he had examined the original specimens, stated that it came between C. scotti and C. fossarum. However, Prof. O. Lundblad of Sweden has examined Thomson's types and come to the conclusion that these are typical examples of Corixa scotti, so that whatever Douglas' specimens from Harris may have been they cannot correctly be called C. prominula. Certainly none of the 285 Hebridean specimens of C. scotti from the present collections belongs to this mythical species. The only specimen I have seen which might be the "prominula" of Douglas and Saunders is a female that I collected in a small brackish pool near Dale in Pembrokeshire (26) which, while being more like C. scotti than any other known British species, is not quite like any C. scotti I have seen as far as markings are concerned.

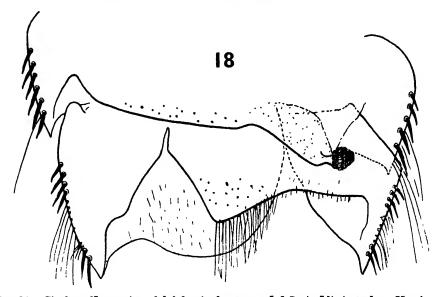


Fig. 18.—Sixth and seventh male abdominal segments of Corixa distincts from Harris.

Corixa (Subsigara) falleni Fieber.

One male was found in the collections from Eigg, May 1938. Apart from this solitary specimen there are no other Hebridean records. It is rare in Scotland and uncommon in the north of England.

Corixa (Subsigara) distincta Fieber.

115 specimens were found in the collections and 49 were males.

Inner Hebrides:—Coll: May 1937, 1 male and 3 females; July 1937, 9 males and 3 females; Muck: May 1938, 2-males and 2 females; 1937 (?), 4 males; Eigg: August 1936, 3 males and 2 females. These males measure 7-7.5 mm. in length and are typical in markings and colour. One male has 8 pale pronotal lines and the remainder have a suspicion of a ninth. All have 6 strigil combs. The pala pegs where they could be counted are, in the basal row 13, 14, 14, and in the apical row 13, 16 and 20. The extremes of the

measurements of the segments of the middle legs are: claw 36, tarsus 30, 33, tibia 42, 45. Genitalia typical; July 1937, 5 males and 4 females; Rhum: July 1937, 5 females, 4 have 8 pale pronotal lines and one has 9; August 1938, 1 male; Hyskeir: August 1938, 1 male; Soay: August 1937, 4 males and 3 females. Two males have 6 strigil combs and one has 7 combs. Pala pegs in the right proximal row 14, 12, 13, in the right apical row 18, 21, 15, and in the left proximal row 12, 14, 13, in the left apical row 16, 20, 19.

Outer Hebrides:—Mingulay: July 1937, 1 male; Sandray: July 1939, 1 female; Barra: September 1935, 3 males and 1 female; South Uist: August 1938, 4 males and 14 females; North Uist: July 1938, 5 males and 12 females. Four males have 8 pale pronotal lines and one has 9. One has a strigil with only 5 combs. Pala pegs in 3 specimens are 13, 14; 15, 10; 19, 14; 20, 14; 15, 12; 14, 14, the right pala and proximal row being taken in each case; Baleshare: April 1938, 2 males and 10 females. These are dark specimens with infuscated legs. Pronotal lines vary from 7 to 8; Harris: July 1938, 1 male and 4 females. This male is 7 mm. long, has 7 pale pronotal lines and is rather dark in colour. Pegs on the right pala are 21, 13 and 22, 15 on the left (fig. 18). C. distincta has previously been recorded from Gigha (7), Islay (7), Jura (7), Raasay (4), Harris (2), and Benbecula (27), which raises the number of occupied islands to 18.

Corixa (Arctocorixa) germari Fieber.

Only 7 specimens were discovered in the collections, but it has previously

been recorded from Islay (7), Jura (7), Barra (5), and Harris (2).

Outer Hebrides:—Barra: August 1939, 1 male 8 mm. long, which is unusually dark in colour and has 10 pale pronotal lines, 36 pegs on each pala, 18 combs in the strigil. The lengths of the segments of the middle legs are: claws 33, tarsi 27, tibiae 40. Head and legs a little infuscated, and pronotal keel very prominent on the anterior half. Abdominal segments and genitalia as fig. 19, a, b, c, d. Eriskay: August 1938, 1 male 7 mm. long. This is just as pale as the specimen from Barra is dark. Monachs: July 1938, 1 female; Harris: July 1938, 1 male; Taransay: July 1938, 1 male and 2 females. The females are 7.5 mm. long, and there are about 8 pale pronotal lines. The lengths of the segments of the middle legs are: claws 29, tarsi 27, tibiae 39. The male is 7 mm. long and is quite pale in colour. There are 10 pale pronotal lines. The right pala has 32 pegs and the left 34. The lengths of the segments of the middle legs are: claws 32, tarsi 27, tibiae 40.

Corixa (Arctocorixa) carinata Sahlberg.

This species is represented by only 4 females. It has previously been recorded from Islay (7), Jura (7), S. Uist (6), Benbecula (27), and also from the Shetlands.

South Uist: August 1938, 1 female; Eriskay: August 1938, 1 female, 8·5 mm. long, pale in colour and with a well-developed pronotal carina. Length of middle tarsus 32, tibia 45; Taransay: July 1938, 1 female 9 mm. long; Baleshare: April 1938, 1 female, 8·5 mm. long and dark in colour. Pronotal keel, for which character the species received its name, very poorly developed. Lengths of the segments of the middle leg are: claws 35, tarsi 34, tibiae 47.

Identification of females of this species is not easy, since colour is no guide,

but the middle leg segments appear to be quite helpful.

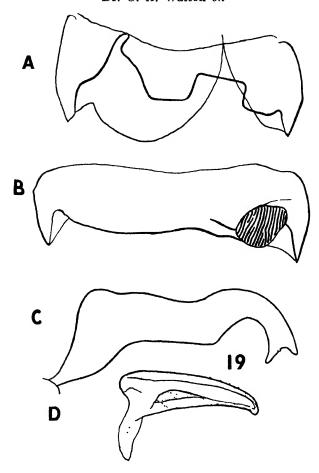


Fig. 19.—Corixa germari from Barra. a, 7th abdominal segment; b, 6th abdominal segment; c, lesser paramere; d, greater paramere, about $\frac{1}{3}$ the scale of the lesser paramere.

Corixa (Anticorixa) castanca Thomson.

This insect has now been collected on 20 Hebridean islands. It is represented in the present collections by 120 specimens, of which 39 are males, and has been previously recorded from Islay (7), Iona (1), Canna (5), Sanday (5), Raasay (4), Rona (4) and Benbecula (27). The series as a whole is quite typical and what slight variation is found in the lesser parameres is illustrated in fig. 20.

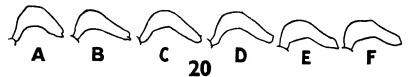


Fig. 20.—Lesser parametes of Corixa castanea from a, Harris and b-f, Barra.

Inner Hebrides:—Tiree: September 1935, 6 males and 7 females; Muck: May 1938, 1 male and 3 females; 1937, 2 females; July 1939, 1 female; Eigg: May 1938, 3 females; Hyskeir: August 1938, 1 female.

Outer Hebrides:—Mingulay: July 1937, 1 male; Barra: August 1939, 10 males and 24 females. These males are 4.5 mm. long and all have 6 pale pronotal lines. The strigil combs 3 in one, 3 and a tiny extra comb in 4 specimens, and 4 combs in the remainder. The number of pegs in the right palae are 19, 19, 18, 17, 19, 17, and in the left 17, 18, 18, 18, 19, 16. The variation in the shape of the lesser parameres as fig. 20, b, c, d, e, f. Eriskay: August 1938, 1 female; South Uist: August 1938, 10 males and 9 females; August 1938, 5 males and 9 females; North Uist: July 1938, 8 males and 7 females; Berneray: July 1939, 1 female; Pabbay (Harris): July 1939, 1 female;

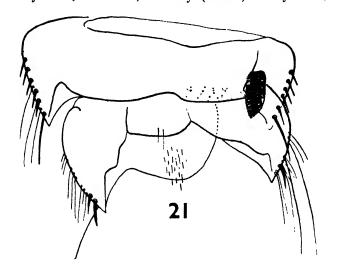


Fig. 21.—6th and 7th abdominal segments of a male Corixa castanea from Harris.

Harris: July 1938, 2 males and 3 females. These males are 4.75 mm. long, have 6 pale pronotal lines and 4 combs in the strigil. Pala pegs are 18, 17, 18, 18. Abdominal segments as fig. 21. Lesser parameres as fig. 20, a; Taransay: July 1938, 3 females.

C. castanea has also been previously recorded from Barra (5).

Corixa (Anticorixa) moesta Fieber.

This has been recorded from a number of Hebridean islands, but these records were made before it was known that *Corixa castanea* was a British species (1). No specimens of *C. moesta* were found in the collections now under consideration, and it is most improbable that any of the previous records refer to this species; all should refer to *C. castanea*.

Corixa (Anticorixa) linnei Fieber.

This is a rare species in the Hebrides and has been previously recorded only from Gigha (7) and Barra (A. R. Waterston). Only three specimens were found in these collections: they are typical.

Tirce: September 1935, 1 female; Muck: July 1939, 1 male; Eigg: May 1938, 1 female.

Corixa (Anticorixa) sahlbergi Fieber.

Remarkably few specimens were found in the present collections, but it has been previously recorded from Gigha (7), Islay (7), Jura (7), Mull (7), Sanday (10), Raasay (4), Rona (4), Scalpay (4), Barra (5), and Harris (2).

Eigg: May 1938, 2 females; South Uist: August 1938, 1 female; Monachs: July 1938, 1 female; Berneray: July 1939, 1 female; North Uist: July 1938, 2 males and 6 females. These are typical in shape, markings, and colour, the legs being strongly infuscated. One male is 7 mm. long, the pronotum has 8 paler pronotal lines, and the strigil has 6 well-developed and one poorly developed comb. Both palae have 21 pegs and the lengths of the segments of the middle leg are: claw 27, tarsi 30 and tibiae 30. The shape of the paramere is as fig. 17, i. Abdominal segments as fig. 22.

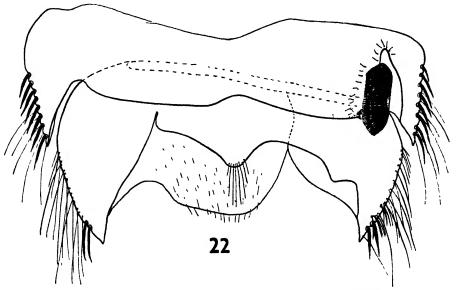


Fig. 22.—Sixth and seventh male abdominal segments of Corixa sahlbergi from North Uist.

Corixa (Corixa) punctata Illiger (= geoffroyi Leach).

Most of the following records refer to larvae, which can be identified by their large size, and distinguished, at least in the last three instars, from the larvae of *Corixa dentipes* by the lack of the characteristic shape of the middle

femero-tibial joint.

Inner Hebrides:—Coll: July 1937, 1 male 12 mm. long; May 1937, 1 male 11 mm. long and 4 females 11-12 mm. long; Muck: July 1939, 4 males and 3 females; Eigg: July 1937, 1 female; August 1936, 1 male 10.5 mm. long with 9 strigil combs, 16 pale pronotal lines, 28 pegs on each pala and abdominal segments as fig. 23; Rhum: August 1938, 1 female; Soay: August 1937, 1 nymph; Handa: August 1937, 1 male 10.5 mm. long, with 14 pale pronotal lines, 8 strigil combs, 27 pegs on each pala and abdominal segments identical with those of the male from Eigg.

Outer Hebrides:—Vatersay: July 1939, 1 fifth-instar nymph; Barra:

August 1939, 1 third-instar nymph, 2 fourth-instar nymphs and 1 fifth-instar nymph; Berneray: July 1939, 1 female; Pabbay (Harris): July 1939, 1 fifth-instar nymph; Harris: July 1938, 1 female; Berneray: July 1939, 1 nymph.

Corixa punctata has been previously recorded from Gigha (7), Islay (7),

Jura (7), Raasay (4), Rona (4), and Barra (5).

Corixa (Corixa) dentipes Thomson.

One typical female specimen measuring 12.5 mm. was found in the collections from Eriskay, August 1938. This is the only record for the whole Hebridean group.

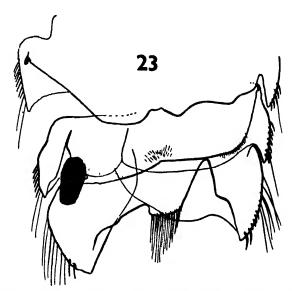


Fig. 23.—5th, 6th and 7th abdominal segments of a male of Corixa punctata from Eigg.

Corixa (Corixa) panzeri Fieber.

The discovery of this species in the collections came as some surprise, but unfortunately no males have yet been found to permit critical comparison with southern material.

Monachs: July 1938, 2 females; Taransay: July 1938, 1 female and 1 fifth-instar nymph.

The only previous record is of a pair of hemielytra found in a pond on the island of Canna by W. H. R. Lumsden of the Glasgow University Canna Expeditions 1936 and 1937 (10).

Corixa (Sigara) striata L.

The collections contain 64 specimens of this species, 31 of which are males. Inner Hebrides:—Coll: May 1937, 2 males and 3 females; Rhum: August 1937, 5 males and 11 females; Raasay: August 1937, 1 male and 5 females.

Outer Hebrides:—South Uist: August 1938, 5 females; North Uist: July 1938, 7 males and 8 females; Monachs: July 1938, 1 male; Pabbay (Harris):

July 1939, 1 male; Harris: July 1938, 2 males; July 1936, 6 males and 6 females. This series is quite typical in appearance, the females are 7 mm. long, and the males 6.5–7 mm. long, all have 6 pronotal lines. Five of them have 9 strigil combs and one has 10. The pala pegs vary as follows, taking the right pala and the basal row first in each case: 15 20–12 20, 13 19–13 19,

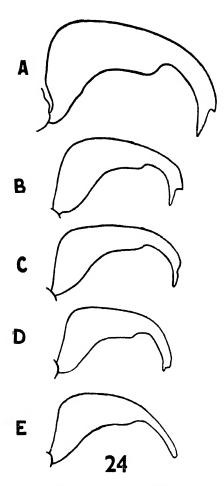


Fig. 24.—Lesser parameres in *Corixa striata*. a, normal example from Taransay; b-d, variations in specimens from Harris; e, abnormality from Harris.

13 19-10 19, 17 20-13 21, 13 19-13 20, 12 21-12 20. The lengths of the segments of the middle leg are: claw 24, 24, 26, 26, 28, tarsus 25, 27, 25, 29, 26, tibia 34, 37, 34, 32, 37. The abdominal segments as fig. 11, f. Variation of the lesser paramere as fig. 24, b-e. Lewis (Valtos): July 1939, 1 larva; Taransay: July 1938, 1 male, fig. 24, a, fig. 11, f.

Corixa striata has previously been recorded from Islay (7), Jura (7), Raasay

(4), Rona (4), Barra (5), and Harris (2).

II. DISCUSSION.

It will be convenient first to consider the aquatic Hemipterous fauna of the Hebrides as a whole, dividing the species into a number of categories and then to compare the fauna of the Inner Hebrides with that of the Outer Hebrides.

CATEGORY 1.—Species expected to be common in the Hebrides, and found to be so.

Velia currens Fabricius is an ubiquitous species and is able to breed at a low temperature. The relative absence of dust in the air is probably the factor which allows it to inhabit stagnant water in the Hebrides. In the south dust particles prevent it from skimming over the surface of such habitats.

Gerris costai Herrich-Schaeffer. Evidence is accumulating to support the view put forward by Prof. Poisson of Rennes that G. costai and G. thoracica are possibly only forms of the same species. Poisson believes G. thoracica to be a mutation of G. costai; does the Hebridean distribution support this view? In the British Isles G. costai is a subalpine species, becoming rare south of the Scottish border and uncommon in northern Ireland. In the Hebrides it occurs at all altitudes, even on brackish pools. Does the low mean summer temperature favour this species or inhibit the others, enabling G. costai to compete with them?

Salda littoralis L. It would be expected that this frequenter of marine swamps would be the commonest species in the Hebrides considering the great length of available coastline.

Notonecta obliqua Gallén was found to be strikingly more abundant than N. qlauca, the ecological requirements of which are very little different.

I have shown in a paper on the oviposition of the British species of Notonecta (24) that the ovipositing habits are in large measure responsible for the type of habitat frequented, but in the Hebrides it is probably the low mean summer temperature which prevents N. maculata and N. viridis from occurring, and this is probably also true of N. glauca. It may be noticed by collectors that, although N. obliqua is often quite abundant in the south and west, it is usual to take it in pools on hills, and these, even if of such low altitudes as 600 ft., appear to give N. obliqua a distinct advantage over N. glauca. Judging by the frequency with which N. viridis is taken in coastal districts, especially Cornwall and Pembrokeshire, where it is dominant and where I have collected it on Skokholm Island, the Hebrides would appear to be ideal were it not for the temperature bar.

Cymatia bonsdorffi Sahlberg. Macan (21) has shown that this insect is most abundant in tarns, where it replaces Corixa scotti and C. distincta when the proportion of accumulated organic matter in the substrata becomes higher. The frequence of tarns in the Hebrides no doubt accounts for the abundance of this species, and the high proportion of macropterous specimens is possibly another important factor favouring its dissemination.

Corixa praeusta Fieber, Corixa punctata Illiger, Corixa nigrolineata and Corixa striata L. form a group of ubiquitous species all inhabiting a wide variety of habitats. C. striata finds its optimum conditions in lakes, which accounts for its being the fourth most abundant Corixid species in the Hebrides.

Corixa wollastoni Douglas & Scott is undoubtedly favoured by the low

mean summer temperature, like Gerris costai. It is the eighth most frequently taken Hebridean Corixid species.

Corixa scotti Fieber was found to be twice as abundant as any other Hebridean Corixid species. It favours acid waters, particularly if peaty, and occurs in those parts of the habitat where the percentage of organic matter in the substrata is relatively low and where there is little growing aquatic vegetation. Roughly speaking, the farther north and west one collects the more abundant does C. scotti become. Thus the Hebridean islands with their moorland nature form the ideal country for such a species, and it is recorded from 27 of the 35 islands from which collections of water bugs have been made.

Corixa distincta Fieber is found throughout the British Isles, inhabiting pools of all kinds and slowly running waters, but its optimum requirements appear to be slightly acid lakes and tarns where the percentage organic matter in the substrata (according to Macan (21)) is relatively low, lower than the value for C. scotti. It is for this reason that in the Hebrides C. distincta is the third most abundant species.

The second most abundant Corixid species in the Hebrides was found to be *Corixa castanea* Thomson. It is found only in acid waters especially where *Sphagnum* grows, both moorland pools and sluggish peaty moorland streams, wherever these occur.

Corixa venusta Douglas & Scott is never an abundant species in the south, but appears to become distinctly commoner farther north. It occurs throughout the British Isles in rapidly running shaded streams and also in certain moorland pools.

CATEGORY 2.—Species uniformly uncommon, but to be expected in the Hebrides, where they are also uncommon.

These are Gerris lateralis Schummel, Glaenocorixa cavifrons Thomson, Corixa wollastoni caledonica Kirkaldy, C. semistriata Fieber, C. germari Fieber, C. carinata Sahlberg, C. dentipes Thomson, Salda morio Zetterstedt, Saldulu scotica Curtis and Cryptostemma alienum Herrich-Schaeffer. All these species are very local and should be looked for in special places; for example, Cryptostemma alienum lives at the water's edge on large shingle banks by the sides of rivers, and Gerris lateralis, unlike the other water skaters, in thick vegetation.

CATEGORY 3.—SPECIES COMMON AND WIDELY DISTRIBUTED, BUT RARE IN THE HEBRIDES.

Almost without exception these species become rarer farther northwards, and the most probable factor restricting them is the low mean summer temperature as well as in some instances a lack of suitable habitats. These species are Gerris lacustris L., G. thoracica Schummel, G. odontogaster Zetterstedt, Saldula pallipes Fabricius, S. saltatoria L., Nepa cinerea L., Notonecta glauca L., Micronecta poweri Douglas & Scott, Corixa lateralis Leach, C. fossarum Leach, C. limitata Fieber, C. falleni Fieber, C. sahlbergi Fieber, C. linnei Fieber.

CATEGORY 4.—Species unexpected in the Hebrides, but present in small numbers.

These are Cymatia coleoptrata insularis subsp. n., Micronecta minutissima L. and Corixa panzeri Fieber. The last is not uncommon in alkaline and calci-

phile habitats in England, while in Ireland Halbert (25) says it is probably widely distributed. In northern England it is quite uncommon and in Scotland must be very rare. For this reason the Hebridean records are very interesting, especially the occurrence in the Monach islands.

It is worth listing the species of another category, namely:—

CATEGORY 5.—Species common throughout the greater part of the British Isles but not yet recorded in the Hebrides.

These species are Microvelia reticulata Burmeister, Hydrometra stagnorum L., Gerris argentata Schummel, G. gibbifera Schummel, G. najas De Geer, Saldula c-album Fieber, S. pilosella Thomson, Halosalda lateralis Fallen, Chartoscirta cincta Herrich-Schaeffer, Plea minutissima Fuessly, Aphelochirus aestivalis Fabricius, Notonecta maculata Fabricius, N. viridis Delcourt, Naucoris cimicoides L., Ranatra linearis L., Micronecta scholtzi Fieber, Corixa concinna Fieber, C. moesta Fieber, C. stagnalis Leach, C. affinis Leach, Hebrus ruficeps Thomson, Mesovelia furcata Mulsant & Rey, Saldula orthochila Fieber, Chartoscirta cocksii Curtis. Some of these species may yet be taken in the Hebrides but they must of necessity be very rare; most of them are really southern forms and six of them are absent from Ireland so that they are possibly species which are newcomers in the south, or which are prevented from spreading northwards, or have been driven southwards by the temperature differences.

CATEGORY 6.—INCLUDES A NUMBER OF SPECIES EVERYWHERE RARE, TO BE EXPECTED IN THE HEBRIDES BUT NOT YET FOUND THERE.

These species are Gerris rufoscutellatus Latreille, Salda oculata Muller, Saldula opacula Zetterstedt, S. riparia Fallen, Chartoscirta elegantula Fallen, Pachycoleus rufescens Sahlberg. This leaves fifteen species which will probably not be found in the Hebrides.

On considering the Hebrides as a whole it will be seen that 41 species and subspecies of aquatic Hemiptera have been recorded at one time or another, and these constitute just half of the total number of species known to be British, now numbering 84. If this total is divided into its respective ecological groups, there are 21 species which live at the margin of the water, 20 living upon the surface of the water and 43 subaquatic forms, of which 34 are CORIXIDAE, and on comparing the Hebrides with a comparable area in the south of England, for example Hampshire and Dorset, it may be seen that there is an absolute reduction in the number of all species other than the CORIXIDAE, see Table 1.

Table 1.
% representation of aquatic Hemiptera species in the Hebrides compared with Hants and Dorset.

Region	Marginal spp.	Surface spp.	Subaquatic	CORIXIDAE	Tempe Jan.	rature: July
Hants & Dorset	66	65	100	76	40° F.	62° F.
Hebrides	28	30	33	76	42° F.	55° F.

From Table 1 I conclude that the CORIXIDAE are less affected by the temperature than the other families of aquatic Hemiptera, since although there is a definite subalpine element present, this is not great enough to account for the whole similitude.

As to the zoo-geographical aspect of the Hebridean species, only one species can definitely be placed in the south-eastern element, and that is Cymatia coleoptrata, represented, however, by a subspecies. Corixa panzeri can be described as definitely southern, its range including Spain and Palestine. Corixa falleni and C. lateralis are also southern, but they have a somewhat wider range in Britain. The greater portion of the remaining species are ubiquitous in Europe and the British Isles but several, like Corixa distincta, C. venusta and C. semistriata, become gradually more abundant towards the north. The subalpine element is represented by Corixa wollastoni and its subspecies caledonica, C. carinata, Glaenocorixa cavifrons, Gerris costai and Salda morio, while Corixa scotti, C. castanea, C. germani, Notonecta obliqua, Gerris lateralis and Saldula scotica are north-western in their distribution.

Since there are now available ample statistics for comparing the Corixid populations of several areas in Great Britain I append in Table 2 figures of

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} TABLE 2. \\ \% abundance of the Corixidal compared with three other areas. \\ \end{tabular}$

Species	Region				
	Hebrides	Lake District	Studland Dorset	Somerset	
C. scotti	33	29	30	4.5	
C. castanea	14	8.5	17.5	2.5	
C. distincta	13	11.5	1	1	
C. striata	7.5	17.5	1	7	
C. praeusta	7	2.5	7	ì	
Cy. bonsdorffi	6	7	17.5	1	
C. wollastoni	5	i	0	0	
C. nigrolineata	5	1	1	7	
C. venusta	4	1	1 1	1	
C. semistriata	3	. 0	0	1	
C. punctata	2	1	1	7	
C. sahlbergi	1.5	1	3	2.5	
C. falleni	1	1	0	30	
C. lateralis	1	1	1	7	
C. fossarum	1	12.5	0	2.5	
C. limitata	1	0	0	1	
C. linnei	1	4	7	1	
Cy. coleoptrata	1	0	15	1	
M. poweri	1	6	0	1	

the numerical abundance of Corixid species as a percentage of the total collections from several areas for comparison with similar figures for the Hebrides taken as a whole. These areas are: first, the Lake District, studied by Macan (21) and for the purpose of this paper represented by 3700 specimens. Secondly South Haven Peninsula, Studland Heath, Dorset, an area no larger than many of the smallest Hebridean islands, but rich in a wide variety of habitats and with soft acid water. This area was studied largely by Macan, C. J. Banks and myself (23) and is represented by 2040 specimens. The third area is north Somerset, and is based on unpublished figures obtained

by myself totalling 9050 specimens. Somerset is an area of chiefly hard alkaline waters. It is not necessary to enlarge upon this table since it is self-explanatory, except to point out that in each area the dominant species reaches 30% of the total, and that in the first three regions, which are acid, Corixa scotti is dominant while in north Somerset with an average pH value of the water of 8, Corixa falleni is dominant. Those species which form over 5% of the total population are marked in heavy type, since this is the figure given if all the species were equally abundant. Species forming less than 1% of the total are considered as 1%.

A COMPARISON OF THE AQUATIC HEMIPTEROUS FAUNA OF THE INNER AND OUTER HEBRIDEAN ISLANDS.

Since the figures are not really large enough for an accurate comparison in most cases, it will suffice to say that the Saldidae, Veliidae, Gerridae, Nepidae and Notonectidae appear to be roughly evenly distributed between the two groups of islands. *Notonecta glauca*, which is such a common species everywhere, has been taken only on Barra in the Outer Hebrides; it should be emphasised that it is not easily overlooked. Table 3 shows the % abun-

TABLE 3.
% abundance of Corixidae in the Inner and Outer Hebrides compared with the number of islands occupied.

	% abundance of species		No. of islands occupied	
	Inner Hebrides	Outer Hebrides	Inner Hebrides	Outer Hebrides
C. scotti	43	23	15	12
C. distincta	14	12	10	7
C. praeusta	12.5	1.5	10	i
Cy. bonsdorffi	10	3	12	3
C. semistriata	2	i	3	5
C. castanea	5	15	10	9
C. striata	4	8.7	6 .	8
C. nigrolineata	0.25	8	6	8
C. venusta	_	6.5	8	7
C. wollastoni	-	10	4	4

dance of the 10 most common Corixid species in the Inner and Outer Hebrides compared with the number of islands in which they have been collected. It will be seen that only in the case of Cymatia bonsdorffi, Corixa praeusta, C. distincta and C. scotti do the figures of the % abundance agree with the number of occupied islands. However, it is much more probable that the figures represent the truth rather than that the methods of collecting were at variance in the two groups of islands. From the table it is safe to say that Corixa distincta and C. scotti are both equally abundant in the Inner Hebrides and the Outer Hebrides; that Cymatia bonsdorffi and Corixa praeusta are both much more abundant in the Inner Hebrides than in the Outer Hebrides and that it is possible that Corixa castanea, C. striata, C. nigrolineata, C. venusta and C. wollastoni are more numerous in the Outer Hebrides but occupy about the same number of islands in both groups.

REMARKS ON THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE HEBRIDEAN AQUATIC HEMIPTERA.

It is usual for Scottish water bugs to be distinctly darker in colour than their corresponding southern representatives. The best example is afforded by the interesting case of *Glaenocorixa cavifrons* summarised by Hutchinson in his paper on the Hemiptera of Islay (7), Jura (7) and Gigha (7). This species is rare in England, where it is represented by a race of smaller pale-coloured specimens with clear markings, but in Scotland it is represented by a race of larger, more robust specimens, much darker in colour and with vaguer markings. The darkening is due in the main to a general staining of the chitin as well as to a widening of the black lines. Scottish specimens of *Gerris costai* are also frequently almost black. What few Scottish Corixidae I have been able to examine have generally been much darker than southern material.

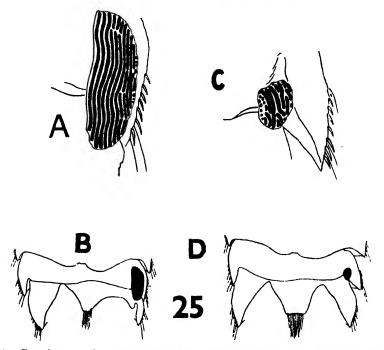
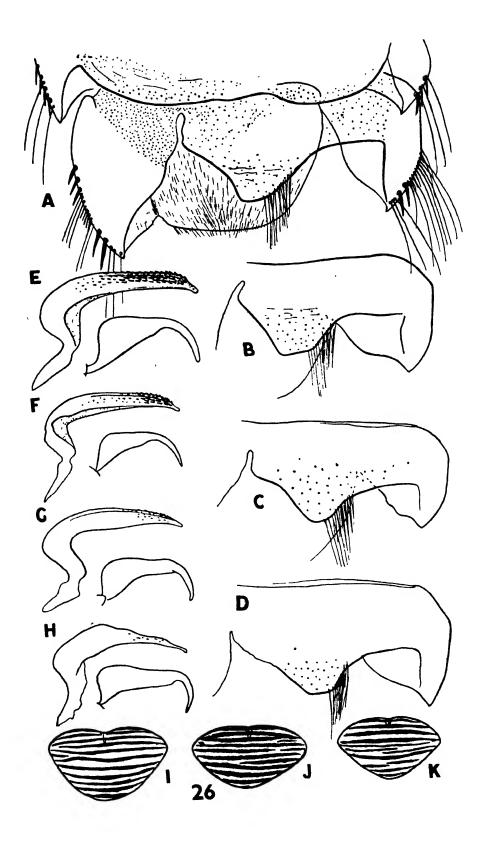


Fig. 25.—C. striata. a, b, normal strigil and abdominal segments; c, d, abnormal strigil and abdominal segments from Poland.

On the other hand, the material from the Hebrides is, as a general rule, not like the Scottish specimens. Indeed most of the specimens might, from their appearance, have come from almost anywhere in the south. The Velia currens are on the whole darker than average southern specimens. Nothing out of the ordinary is discernible among the Gerridae and Notonectidae,

Fig. 26.—Seventh male abdominal segment of C. wollastoni from Harris. a, typical specimen; b, from North Uist; c, C. w. caledonica from Loch Leven; d, C. w. caledonica from Handa; e, greater and lesser parameres of C. wollastoni from North Uist; f, C. w. caledonica from Handa; g, C. praeusta from Barra; h, C. praeusta from Eigg, a slight abnormality in one male; i, pronotum of C. wollastoni; j, pronotum of C. praeusta; k, pronotum of C. w. caledonica.



except the inclusion of one specimen of the paler variety of *Notonecta obliqua*. Among the Corixae only *Corixa nigrolineata* and *C. distincta* show a slight increase in the brownish tint, and a few specimens of quite a number of species show slight infuscation of the legs and the head, but only the series from

Baleshare and Harris show the characteristic darkening.

Corixa scotti is interesting in that the males generally show five pale transverse lines on the pronotum instead of the usual six. Some of these males have only four, and it is interesting that Halbert (25) has reported in Ireland "as a rule there are five lines on the pronotum, and sometimes there is a faint indication of a sixth. I have also seen one or two specimens with only four clear lines, but this form must be very rare." Corixa scotti also shows some variation in the shape of the middle lobe of the seventh male tergite, but this is present in specimens from the same habitats. The same degree of variation in the middle lobe of the seventh male tergite is shown in Corixa wollastoni, and those interested are referred to the discussion under C. wollastoni caledonica (fig. 26). The C. praeusta show an interesting variation in this same part; here two distinct types of lobe appear to be met with in males from the same locality; in some it is in the form of a rough ellipse and in the others broader and transversely truncated (fig. 11, a, b, c, d, e). A slight variation of the parameters of Corixa praeusta is shown in fig. 26, g, h. One interesting variation of the genitalia of Corixa striata was found. In a specimen, otherwise normal in every respect, the lesser paramere was of the shape seen in Corixa falleni, and is obviously not a case of accidental deformity (fig. 24, e). I give a reproduction of another variation in this species reported by Dr. T. Jaczewski from Poland, for comparison (fig. 25). These abnormalities are not common among the CORIXIDAE and the only others I know of are reversal of the asymmetry of the male abdominal segments in a specimen of Corixa affinis reported from Egypt by Jaczewski and a male of Corixa germari I have from Killarney which lacks a strigil, so large in this species. I also have a male of Corixa distincta, collected by Mr. Philip Harwood in the New Forest on 8 November, 1936, and spotted by Mr. E. C. Bedwell, in which the genitalia are quite abnormal. Specimens of Corixa falleni from southeastern Europe all appear to have larger trapezoidal palae. I give figures of the slight variations found in the lesser parameres of Corixa scotti from the Hebrides (fig. 17, a-e).

Another interesting variation is the two-segmented condition of the one tarsus of the middle leg of the single Hebridean specimen of *Micronecta minutissima* (fig. 5). The other variation is the condition of the lesser para-

meres of the Cymatia coleoptrata (fig. 7).

I have recorded in this paper a large number of measurements of the segments of the middle legs of the Corixidae and counts of the strigil combs and pegs on the male palae in the hope that some day large collections will be made on the Scottish mainland and a comparison with the Hebridean material will be possible. At present the variations seen in these measurements appear to be paralleled by material from the south. It also appears that one is liable to discover greater variations both of colour and of structure in material collected in different ecological loci within one habitat from almost anywhere than one is likely to meet in series selected, say, from the Hebrides and Killarney or Somerset or Norfolk, for example.

The specimens studied in this paper and microscopical preparations made from 115 of them are deposited in the Hope Department at Oxford University.

III. CONCLUSIONS.

For a part of the British Isles the aquatic Hemiptera of the Hebrides is peculiar in that SALDIDAE, GERRIDAE, NEPIDAE and NOTONECTIDAE are very poorly represented as regards both numbers of species and specimens, and, moreover, many of these species are abundant in most parts of the country. Further, these species show little indication of "Scottish facies." On the other hand, the Hebrides are very rich in the number and variety of its fauna of CORIXIDAE, including several instances of isolation of southern forms. In general appearance the series resemble material from the more southern parts of the British Isles, and could be described as "typical" rather than being like the dark specimens from the same latitude in Scotland. The range of variation and the number of abnormalities found in these relatively small collections might be taken to indicate that the species of aquatic Hemiptera inhabiting the Hebrides are in an unstable state; some may be moving towards the production of subspecies, as has happened extensively in other groups of Hebridean animals. However, it must be remembered that geologically the water bugs are a very ancient group and fundamentally are morphologically relatively stable and have, to a large extent, withstood those influences upon their evolution which are at play in the Hebrides. The discontinuous distribution of some of the species present might indicate that the climate in the Hebrides has been warmer than it is now and that means formerly existed for certain species to reach the more distant islands now isolated.

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